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NAME OF SUPERVISOR/NOM DU DIRECTEUR DE THÈSE Dr. D.D. Sawatsky

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AN INVESTIGATION OF STUDENT SELF-ACTUALIZATION, ACHIEVEMENT, AND PERCEPTION OF FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS IN THE STUDENT-TEACHER RELATIONSHIP

by

© IRIS DARLENE FORREST

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "An Investigation of Student Self-Actualization, Achievement, and Perception of Facilitative Conditions in the Student-Teacher Relationship," submitted by Iris Darlene Forrest in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education in Counseling Psychology.

.....
Supervisor

.....

.....

Date...June 23, 1978.....

To the patients of years past and to the students and clients of more recent times.

"I am a part of all that I have met"

Ulysses
Alfred Lord Tennyson

ABSTRACT

This research was carried out for the purpose of investigating the self-actualizing process of students in terms of their perceptions of facilitative conditions in the student-teacher relationship. In addition, academic achievement was examined in regard to student self-actualizing level and also in regard to student perception of facilitative conditions in the student-teacher relationship. As well, the nature of the student-teacher relationship was explored in respect to student perception of facilitative conditions in the relationship and student rating and description of the relationship.

Ninety-one student nurses enrolled in the first year of a Diploma in Nursing program at a large urban hospital volunteered to participate in the study. The final sample for the study consisted of 59 students.

The Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) was administered to determine student level of self-actualization prior to the formation of a student-teacher relationship. This relationship involved a potential of 160 hours of contact over a three and one-half month period. At the end of this period students completed the Truax Relationship Questionnaire which measured the levels of empathy, nonpossessive warmth, and genuineness they perceived to exist in the relationship. Additionally, students completed a rating and description of their student-teacher relationship. Also at this time the POI was readministered to determine if the level of actualizing had increased or decreased.

The analysis of the data by Welch t-tests revealed that students

who increased their level of self-actualizing perceived more of the facilitative conditions in their student-teacher relationship. In regard to achievement, actualizing students did not achieve higher grade point average than non-actualizing students. However, students who achieved higher grade point average perceived more genuineness in their student-teacher relationship. In addition, students who indicated a superior relationship with their teacher perceived more empathy, nonpossessive warmth, and genuineness in the relationship. The nature of this relationship, as described by students, bears much similarity to the nature of the ideal student-teacher relationship described in the research results of Tyler (1964).

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Background of the Problem.

Evidence is mounting in the field of psychotherapy and counseling which suggests that helpful and unhelpful effects of therapy can be largely attributed to the presence or absence of certain core conditions in the relationship between client and counselor (Carkhuff and Berenson, 1977; Truax and Carkhuff, 1967). These core conditions, often called facilitative conditions, were first defined by Carl Rogers (1957) who, in addition, put forth the hypothesis that these dimensions are the necessary and sufficient conditions to promote positive personality change. The term 'positive personality change' refers to changes or movement toward psychological health, in turn defined by some psychologists as growth toward self-actualizing or toward using one's human potential (Maslow, 1954; Shostrom, 1976). Each individual has a potential or capacity for creative expression, self-direction, interpersonal effectiveness, or, in larger terms, the capacity to find fulfillment in living (Maslow, 1954; Shostrom, 1976).

This therapy model, in which the presence of facilitative conditions relates to the utilizing of human potential, has been generalized to other relationships primarily on the basis of claims such as Rogers' that "the therapeutic relationship is only a special instance of interpersonal relationships in general" (1961, p. 39). Accordingly, the conditions of empathy, nonpossessive warmth, and genuineness have been applied to the learning environment and the interpersonal relationship

between student and teacher. That the ideal student-teacher relationship closely resembles the ideal therapeutic relationship was indicated in the work of Tyler (1964). The core dimensions, then, which are effective in the therapeutic and counseling processes may be effective in the student-teacher relationship as well. In applying the therapy model to the field of education the theorists and researchers have acted on the belief that a central value in all good teaching and a goal of any education is that of student self-actualization, or student growth toward self-direction, creativity and interpersonal effectiveness (Combs, 1973; Gorman, 1972; Rogers, 1969).

Research studies specifically measuring increases or decreases in self-actualization have been conducted primarily in relation to encounter group experiences, human relationships training, and counselor and teacher training experiences (Knapp, 1976). Investigation of the perception of core conditions has generally focused on the counseling relationship and client gain or change as measured by a number of indexes (Carkhuff and Berenson, 1977; Truax and Carkhuff, 1967). Studies in both the field of counseling and education have explored therapist or teacher level of self-actualization and effectiveness in providing the facilitative conditions to clients or students as rated by trained judges (Boston, 1975; Foulds, 1969; Hines, 1973; Selfridge, 1976). However, in terms of the adult learner in a post secondary educational institution, there is scant empirical evidence to support or refute the well-published theoretical position that student growth, or self-actualization, is linked to the facilitative conditions perceived to exist within the student-teacher relationship. A study by Rosendahl (1973) only partly supports the hypothesis that perception of core conditions in turn

promotes an increase in actualization on the part of students.

In addition to the personal growth of students, educators are interested in student academic achievement. Theory suggests that the perception of facilitative conditions within the student teacher relationship promotes increased academic achievement. Empirical investigation indicates a positive relationship exists between the presence of facilitative conditions in a learning environment and academic achievement of children. Hard evidence supporting or refuting the hypothesis is lacking in regard to adult learners. On the other hand, research relating the self-actualization level and academic achievement has been conducted with adult students. The results tend to support, conditionally, the hypothesis that a positive relationship may exist between the two (Green, 1967; LeMay, 1969; LeMay and Damm, 1968).

Purpose of the Study.

Utilizing the theoretical concepts and research evidence available, it is the attempt of this study to answer the following questions.

(1) Are there differences between students who show movement toward self-actualization and movement away from self-actualization and their perception of facilitative conditions in the student-teacher relationship?

(2) Are there differences between self-actualized and non-self-actualized students and their academic achievement?

(3) Are there differences in the academic achievement of students and their perception of facilitative conditions in their relationship with their teacher?

(4) Are student descriptions of an ideal student-teacher relationship similar to or different from the characteristics

delineated as being necessary components of an ideal student-teacher relationship?

It is proposed in this study to first pretest a nursing student sample in regard to their level of self-actualization prior to their forming a student-teacher relationship. This relationship, extending over a fifteen week period, involves consistent contact with one nursing instructor in a predominately clinical setting. The levels of empathy, nonpossessive warmth, genuineness and overall conditions perceived by the students to exist within the relationship will be measured at the end of the fifteen week period. At this time students will rate and describe their student-teacher relationship. Also at the end of this period, students will be post-tested to determine in what direction their level of self-actualization has changed.

The data will be analyzed with statistical procedures which test for the significance of difference between means.

Significance for Nursing.

The research questions have developed from the investigator's teaching experience in diploma and baccalaureate nursing programs. As a result, though the issues are significant in most educational settings, they will be discussed in the context of nursing education. The questions are worthy of investigation because of their implications for evaluating nursing education objectives and the planning of ways to meet student needs.

Nursing educators are quick to espouse that psychological maturity and self-development are important on-going goals for student nurses, particularly because they are in a helping relationship with others. However, there is a need for evidence to suggest what factors in the

learning environment may promote these goals, and if such goals can be measured.

As well, nursing educators need to know if student level of self-actualization, which appears to be representative of psychological health, has any bearing on their knowledge and practice of nursing. Information in this regard could have implications for curriculum planning and implementation.

Achievement in nursing may also be linked to whether students perceive helping conditions in their student-teacher relationships. It is significant that the theory and practice of the helping relationship is a vital part of a nursing curriculum. The elements basic to this relationship are the facilitative conditions of empathy, warmth and genuineness. While nursing educators hope these elements are consistently and congruently modeled for students by teachers it is uncertain if they are indeed perceived by students and if they in turn influence students' achievement.

Nursing students themselves are speaking out asking for a learning climate through which they can deal with both their personal growth needs and learning needs (Litwack, 1971). Nursing educators can better plan to help students if they know what conditions within a teacher-student relationship students find helpful to their learning.

Presumably, investigating these problems could in the long run promote better patient care for it is with the nursing educator that the student is introduced to the philosophy and practice of nursing, the quality of which is delivered to the health care consumer.

CHAPTER II

THEORY AND RELATED RESEARCH

The content of chapter two focuses upon a review of the relevant theory and research pertaining to the problem. The concepts of self-actualization and facilitative conditions, as well as the pertinent studies in regard to each, are dealt with separately. The relationship between actualization and facilitative conditions is examined in the light of the available research. A section follows which illustrates how the two concepts have been applied to the field of nursing education. The chapter concludes with a summary of definitions and a statement of the hypotheses to be tested.

Self-Actualization.

The Concept.

The term "self-actualization" coined by Kurt Goldstein (1939) refers to the realization of one's potentials as a person which Goldstein considered both a natural tendency and a basic human need. The meaning of the term is similar to the concepts of self-realization (Horney, 1950), individuation (Jung, 1968), authenticity (Bugental, 1965) and full humanness (Rogers, 1961). These concepts can all be taken "as synonymous with psychological health" (Macklin, 1976, p. 45).

The concept of psychological health is based on the formulations of growth theory. While traditional psychological theory often deals with pathology, considering health as the absence of pathology, growth theory is concerned with health and the open-ended potentialities of a human being (Dandes, 1966). Maslow (1967) describes the concept of actualization in terms of psychological health and growth in the

following way: "All the evidence that we have (mostly clinical evidence) indicates that it is reasonable to assume in practically every human being and certainly in almost every newborn baby, that there is an active will toward health, an impulse toward growth, or towards the actualization of human potentialities" (p. 153).

Growth theorists conceive of man as something other than a homeostatically oriented organism. Rather, their view of man centers on his potentiality to fulfill his own self - to become a uniquely human, fully functioning person. That each person is unlike any other, and that being oneself is both a responsibility and a privilege is expressed by Martin Buber (1951) in the following passage: "Every person born into this world represents something new, something that never existed before, something original and unique.... Everyman's foremost task is the actualization of his unique, unprecedented and never recurring potentialities, and not the repetition of something that another, and be it even the greatest, has already achieved" (p. 16).

Definitions.

The term self-actualization can be defined in several ways: statistically and in terms of being a process; in terms of being a state; and in the sense of being an educational model. These three definitions, which are not mutually exclusive of each other, will be further explored.

A Process.

In an unpublished doctoral dissertation, Lewis (cited in Shostrom, 1976, p. 64) presented a bell-shaped curve depicting three psychological forms that make up the total population. These psychological forms

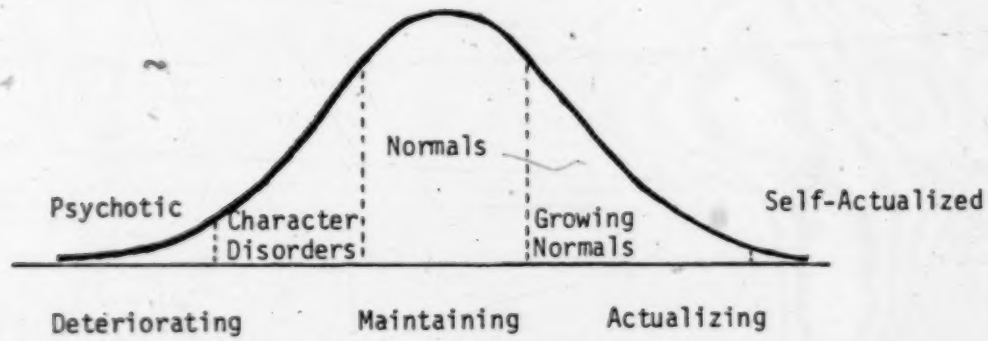
Lewis described as deteriorating (which represents psychopathology), maintaining, and actualizing (which represents psychological health). The bell-shaped curve is presented in Figure 1.

The lower part of the curve represents a deteriorating ability to integrate thinking, feeling and body responses. As well, a lower level of inner direction is represented.

The upper part of the curve represents a progressively higher level of integrating thinking, feeling and body responses. A relatively higher level of inner direction is represented.

FIGURE 1

MAINTAINING, DETERIORATING, AND ACTUALIZING PSYCHOLOGICAL FORMS IN THE TOTAL POPULATION



From Shostrom (1976)

The large middle part of the curve refers to normalcy and represents a maintenance of the three modes of expression through manipulative behaviour. While actualizing represents experiencing a

unity in the three modes, evidenced as an expression of one's total being, normalcy represents a limited, uneven or partial expression of the modes.

With the statistical viewpoint in mind, self-actualizing is defined by Shostrom (1976) as "an active process of being and becoming increasingly inner-directed and integrated at the levels of thinking, feeling, and body response. It is, therefore, not an end point but a process of moving from normal manipulation toward growth, development, and the unfolding of human potential" (p. 65). This active process is described as one "... of growing, by continuously examining and expanding one's assumptions about life....continuously discovering a viable ethic for living" (Shostrom, 1976, p. 65). To underscore his view of actualizing as a process rather than an end point, Shostrom prefers the word actualizing to actualized. Applying this conception to Lewis' bell curve, Shostrom (1976) indicates self-actualizing people are "those in the upper fifty percent of the curve" (p. 64). Presumably this includes the upper half of the normal category in addition to the growing normals and self-actualized. Though there is some lack of clarity here, Shostrom is obviously concerned with more than the small part of the curve which depicts the self-actualized.

A State.

While Shostrom is concerned with the upper fifty percent of the population to whom he refers as self-actualizing people, Maslow has been concerned more with the self-actualized which he has suggested constitutes approximately one percent of the population. Self-actualization, in one definition offered by Maslow (1962) suggests a particular, unsustained state or peak experience. He defines it as

"an episode, or a spurt in which the powers of the person come together in a particularly efficient and intensely enjoyable way, and in which he is more integrated and less spljt, more open for experience, more idiosyncratic, more perfectly expressive or spontaneous, or fully functioning, more creative, more humorous, more ego-transcending, more independent of his lower needs. He becomes in these episodes more truly himself, more perfectly actualizing in his potentialities, closer to the core of his Being, more fully human" (p. 91).

A Model.

Therapists are making use of the actualizing process in the context of a therapy model which provides the framework for their practice (Luthman and Kirschenbaum, 1974; Satir, 1967; Shostrom, 1976). Rather than focusing on the pathology orientation of the medical model these practitioners have chosen to look at behaviour "to determine the growth intent...the growth needs...of the individual and the family" (Luthman and Kirschenbaum, 1974, p. 12).

Even the crisis of death is viewed as 'the final stage of growth'. Dying represents a final opportunity for the individual to free himself of culturally defined role expectations and stereotypes, which result in manipulative behaviour, and become aware of the infinite capacities within himself. These inner resources can be used in service of his own and others' growth (Kübler-Ross, 1975).

In the educational realm, curriculums aimed at reaching students' fundamental concerns and needs have been explored and explicitly developed (Borton, 1970; Rogers, 1969; Weinstein and Fantini, 1970). The underlying philosophy of this humanistic approach to learning,

based on a growth model, is summed up by Borton (1970): "an education without the understanding of self is simply training in an irrelevant accumulation of facts and theories" (p. vii).

Maslow's Theoretical Premises.

Maslow studied healthy, creative people who he believed demonstrated expression of their whole human potential (Maslow, 1954). It is evident from his writing that he also studied himself, at one point stating "knowledge of one's own deep nature is also simultaneously knowledge of human nature in general" (Maslow, 1971, p. xvi).

Early in his work, Maslow (1954) organized a hierarchy of needs which he considered basic to human growth and development. He delineated these needs as physiological needs (food, water and so on), safety needs (the avoidance of pain), needs for belongingness and love (intimacy, gregariousness, identification) and esteem needs (the approval of self and others). Each of these needs becomes important when those preceeding it on the hierarchy are satisfied. These needs, which ensure the maintenance of life, are associated with the survival tendency, referred to as deprivation motivation.

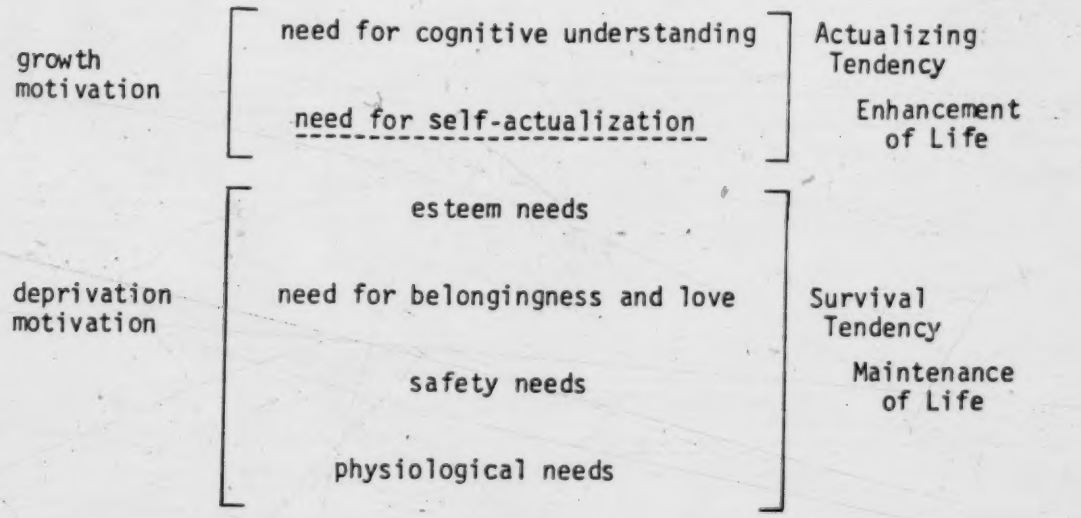
When the survival tendency is satisfied the need for self-actualization and the need for cognitive understanding (both apparently associated with the actualizing tendency) emerge. According to Maslow (1954) it is the actualizing tendency, which he calls growth motivation, that leads to the enhancement of life.

Figure 2 depicts the basic concepts discussed.

FIGURE 2

THE HIERARCHY OF NEEDS, MOTIVATIONS, AND TENDENCIES

BASIC TO GROWTH



The self-actualized person, then, has satisfied the survival tendency and has actualized himself through the full expression of his inherent potentialities. This state would seem to bespeak complete psychological maturity and may account for the fact that Maslow was unable to find self-actualizers among college students. "I had to conclude that self-actualization of the sort I had found in my older subjects was not possible in our society for young developing people" (Maslow, 1970, p. 150).

The basic premise that survival needs must be satisfied before self-actualization can occur has been questioned by citing examples from the lives of a number of creative people which suggests otherwise. Maddi (1976, p. 101) suggests Maslow would have responded to

this criticism by contending that his position speaks to the general rule, rather than the exception. For most people, Maslow might argue, realizing their potential requires prior satisfaction of basic needs.

As part of his work, Maslow (1954) described the characteristics of self-actualized people. The common features of these individuals include a realistic orientation; acceptance of self, others, and the natural world; spontaneity; task-orientation rather than self-preoccupation; sense of privacy; independence; vivid appreciativeness; spirituality that is not necessarily religious in a formal sense; sense of identity with mankind; feelings of intimacy with a few loved ones; democratic values; recognition of the difference between means and ends; humor that is philosophical rather than hostile; creativeness, and non-conformism (Maslow, 1954, pp. 200-201).

Empirical Analysis of Premises.

Several recent studies empirically test aspects of Maslow's theory. Leith (1972) tested subjects on verbal creativity tests under two conditions of stress. Presumably the stress was a threat to the basic needs at the lower end of Maslow's hierarchy. In this regard the stress should act to decrease the number of and originality of the responses. According to Maslow's premise, unsatisfied or frustrated lower needs make higher needs, such as creativity, unimportant. Instead, the opposite effect occurred, in that there was an increase in the number and originality of the responses.

In another study, Graham and Balloun (1973) tried to show, through scored interviews, that satisfaction of a lower need would be greater than that of a higher need in any pair of needs at different levels in Maslow's hierarchy. The results generally supported Maslow's

theory of hierarchical nature of needs.

The results of a study by Graff and Bradshaw (1970) revealed that dormitory assistants who showed higher self-actualization levels were rated by students and deans as more fully using their talents, capacities and potentialities. The researchers conclude that the description of these individuals does indeed fit Maslow's description of the self-actualized person.

Maslow's theory was further confirmed with a study by Knapp (1965) in which self-actualization, measured by the Personal Orientation Inventory, was shown to be negatively related to the concept of neuroticism as measured by the Eysenck Personality Inventory. On the basis of the latter scores the college students were divided into "neurotic" and "emotionally stable" groups. The more emotionally stable were higher on all self-actualizing scales which, the author states, supports Maslow's position that he was describing psychologically healthy people.

Empirical data reported in Knapp (1976, p. 85) supports Maslow's premise that self-actualization of the kind observed in older individuals is not often found among young developing persons. Mean scores on self-actualizing scales for adult samples tend to be higher than those based on high-school samples. Advanced college student samples are higher than beginning college students' and samples from both of these populations are higher than high-school student samples. Knapp concludes that the trend of increasing actualization up to the early and middle adult years appears quite well established but less clear cut is the trend after ages thirty to forty.

Extension of the Theory.

While Goldstein coined the term 'actualization' in reference to an organism's process of growing, Abraham Maslow, Carl Rogers and Fritz Perls have elaborated upon the idea. Shostrom, in turn, has synthesized some of the basic tenets of the above mentioned psychologists, particularly those of Maslow, into a system of actualizing therapy. Though he uses the word therapy, he makes clear that his system suggests a method,to any helping professional, including teachers and nurses, for experiencing the process of actualizing themselves and fostering this movement toward full humanness in others with whom they are in relationship (Shostrom, 1976).

A most important contribution of Shostrom (1964), made in consultation with Maslow, has been the construction of a comprehensive measure of what appears to be the behaviours and values seen to be important in the process of self-actualization. This instrument, the Personal Orientation Inventory (frequently referred to as the POI) has greatly facilitated empirical research of the theoretical constructs and the conditions promoting self-actualization. In his last book, Maslow (1971) wrote: "Most of what I was able to see intuitively, directly, personally, is being confirmed now with numbers, tables, and curves" (p. 28).

Polarities.

What appears to be an extension of Maslow's position lies in what Shostrom (1976) refers to as polarities and the principle of rhythmic balance in life. The actualizing process, from Shostrom's point of view, involves expressing the natural extremes of feeling that are part and parcel of living. Feelings such as strength and weakness, for

example, can be polarized on a strong-weak continuum. In a paradoxical manner each, on occasion, contains the other. Thus to be strong also is to be weak from time to time. Ignoring the polarity may mean a locking in of expression of feelings promoting a manipulating relationship in which only one feeling polarity is considered acceptable to express. On the other hand, Shostrom continues, the actualizing person is centered rhythmically, able to move along his polarities expressing his thinking, feeling, and body responses in the here and now. "The polarities are synergized and potentiated into one thing which can be referred to as the courage to be, or the freedom to be. But there is a feeling of being together with oneself as one experiences the various polar dimensions as a 'family' rather than as 'warring factions'" (Shostrom, 1976, p. 280).

Other- Versus Inner- Directedness.

The concept of inner-directedness versus other-directedness originated with David Riesman (1950) however Shostrom (1964; 1972; 1976) explored the idea in terms of noncompeting polarities.

Being inner-directed means being energized from the core and polarities within as opposed to being other-directed and energized by people to whom one gives that authority. While the other-directed person depends on the views of others, the inner-directed individual is more independent, relying on internal motivations, which, over time become generalized into an inner core of character traits and principles (Shostrom, 1972, p. 17).

The source for this inner-directedness is implanted early in life, primarily through the parents and guided by relatively few

principles. The source for other-directedness seems to be splintered between family and external authorities which in turn promotes a controlling feeling of fear or anxiety. Thus the other-directed individual may become dependent upon the opinion and approval of others and in this way conforms to external influences (Shostrom, 1964).

Self-actualizing persons have more of an autonomous, self-supportive, or being-orientation and while sensitive to a degree to the approval and affection of others, the source of their action is primarily inner-directed. Actualizing persons are more inner-directed or self-supportive but some of the time they are other-directed, seeking the support of others' views (Shostrom, 1976).

The concept of inner- versus other- directedness was empirically tested by Warehime and Foulds (1971) who hypothesized that inner-directed subjects (as measured by the POI) would perceive themselves as having personal control over their reinforcements while other-directed subjects would perceive reinforcements beyond their personal control. A significant relationship was found in support of the hypothesis.

A ratio, called the Support Ratio, between other-directedness and inner-directedness was established by Shostrom (1964) through a series of research studies. The ratio between other-directedness and inner-directedness for the actualized group was, on the average 1:3 (Shostrom, 1964) and for the non-actualized group the average was 1:1.4 (Fox, Knapp, and Michael, 1968; Knapp, 1965).

Actualized persons, then, are inner-directed only to a degree and while typically self-supportive are not totally so. A Support

Ratio considerably above 1:3 is suggestive of excessive self-supportiveness and autonomy, while a ratio below 1:1 suggests a binding situation where neither conformity nor autonomy are well handled (Shostrom, 1972).

Instead of a natural rhythmic flow on the polarities the average person is stationed rather rigidly. Shostrom (1976) accounts for that situation in the following way: "Our natural rhythmic expression is affected by those parents and teachers who take control of our lives and .... teach us to see through their eyes, to hear through their ears, and to respond through their own personal fears. For most children life becomes simplistically good and bad, right and wrong, acceptable and unacceptable. They give adults ... the right to judge their worth, to determine their merit, and to manipulate their love... they give in to the 'shoulds' and 'have tos' and lose their personal rhythm" (p. 78).

Time Incompetence Versus Time Competence.

A second fundamental concept developed by Shostrom (1964; 1972; 1976) is that of time orientation described in terms of the polarities of time competence and time incompetence. Time competent means living primarily in the present but tying the past and future together in meaningful continuity. On the other hand, time incompetent means living primarily in the past with guilts, resentments and regrets, and or in the future, with fears and idealized goals.

The self-actualizing person is mostly time competent in that the past is used for reflective thinking and the future is seen in terms of present goals. The non-self-actualized is, in comparison, mostly

time incompetent wrapping up the present with excessive concern for the past or future. The past-oriented person persists in "nibbling on the undigested memories and hurts of the past" while the future-oriented, living with fears and fanciful goals, is the "obsessive worrier who nibbles at the future" (Shostrom, 1972, p. 16).

Through the same series of studies used to establish the Support Ratio, Shostrom (1964) established a Time Ratio between time competence and time incompetence. The ratio between the use of time and the misuse of time for self-actualizing persons was, on the average 1:8 (Shostrom, 1964); and for non-self-actualizing persons the average was 1:2.9 (Fox, Knapp and Michael, 1968; Knapp, 1965).

Thus, the self-actualizing person, with a Time Ratio of 1:8 can be considered time competent eight hours for every one hour of time incompetence. In comparison, the non-self-actualizing person is time incompetent approximately one hour of every three hours time competency (Shostrom, 1972, p. 15).

Table 1 summarizes the research results of the time and support ratios.

TABLE 1

TIME AND SUPPORT RATIO AVERAGES FOR ACTUALIZING, AND NON-ACTUALIZING GROUPS

	Support Ratio Average Outer:Inner	Time Ratio Average Incompetent:Competent
Actualizing	1:3	1:8
Non-actualizing	1:1.4	1:3

Interrelationship of Time and Support.

Self-actualization involves both the development of time competence and inner directedness of support. Shostrom (1972, p. 19) suggests the interrelationship is due to the fact that the self-actualizing person, living in the present but relating it to both the past and future, relies more upon himself and his own support. As a result, this individual can more freely experience his own being moment to moment. Maslow (1962) expresses much the same idea as a contrast "between living fully and preparing to live fully, between growing up and being grown" (p. 30).

Perls, Hefferline and Goodman (1951, p. 38) indicate that the Freudian viewpoint of concentrating on the past as a means to determine present adjustment promotes for the individual a definite orientation to the past. The authors further suggest that the Adlerian stress on goals promotes a future-orientation for the person. These Gestaltists suggest that the person living in the past depends on blame and resentment as a substitute for self-support. At the same time living in the future means depending on expected events for motivation rather than on one's self. The expected events are viewed as invented goals the individual contrives because he is unable to accept himself as he is presently (Perls, Hefferline and Goodman, 1951).

Potentiality.

Shostrom (1976) in contrast to Maslow sees a paradox in the actualizing process which stems from an awareness, on the part of a person, of two potentials within himself; the potential for deterioration, to the extent of psychosis, and the potential for growing toward actualization. "This very awareness spurs the

actualizing person into creative thinking, feeling, and body responses. And it is the awareness of his own freedom to move either way that gives him the limits of his potentials for deterioration, as well as for growth. It is the potentiality for either psychosis or actualizing that makes the living of each day a creative act" (Shostrom, 1976, p. 156).

On the other hand, Maslow (1954) generally focused on the public life and deeds of his well known subjects and did not to any extent explore their personal lives. He does not suggest, as does Shostrom, that the achievement of potential on the part of his renowned subjects was due to an awareness and a working through of their personal limitations.

Application to the Learning Environment.

Educational institutions can be viewed as providing students with experiences which will aid in the development and acquisition of skills for life and living in their particular society. If a society values psychological health, openmindedness, imagination, critical thinking, and self-direction these would be cultivated in part through the educational system. It is the opinion of Dandes (1966) that such goals are not always accomplished since "the educational means are often inappropriate for the achievement of these ends" (p. 301). He continues by stating that while society claims to value the growth of the individual, educational practices often inhibit that growth. Instead of stimulating open-minded inquiry, critical thinking, and self-direction, educational practices often stifle the inquiring student. Dandes suggests it is necessary to examine the research in the light of specified educational goals. For instance, if such goals

include growth in self-direction, personal and social responsibility, and critical problem solving certain teacher characteristics emerge which seem to be associated with student development in these areas (Combs, 1973; Dinkmeyer, 1971). In fact, the empirical investigation by Dandes (1966) indicated that the greater the psychological health of the teacher (as measured by the POI) the greater the possession of attitudes and values characteristic of effective teaching. Dandes (1966) concludes that as teachers are more self-actualizing they are more effective as teachers which in turn enables them to encourage the growth of their students, who in turn become more effective, more responsible members of society.

The development of fully functioning human beings is not, according to Dinkmeyer (1971) an "incidental by product of the educational process ... [it] is the central purpose of the educational process" (p. 66). Stated more bluntly by Stern (1971) following his research report on learning environments for students, those "purported learning environments that fail to provide suitable conditions for self-actualizing are simply custodial settings for holding people in the various stages of thrall-like socialization" (p. 24).

Student-Teacher Relationship.

Shostrom (1976, pp. 257 - 259) describes three relationship patterns from which he believes society operates. These patterns are depicted in Figure 3.

FIGURE 3

THE TRADITIONAL, HEDONISTIC, AND ACTUALIZING RELATIONSHIP PATTERNS

	Traditional Relationship	Hedonistic Relationship	Actualizing Relationship
Emphasis	Contractual	Genital	Core to core
Basic Principle	Obligation	Manipulation	Commitment
Orientation	Rule oriented	Body-oriented	Person oriented
Nature	I - it	It - it	Thou - thou
Motivation	Security based	Fun based	Growth based

From Shostrom (1976).

While Shostrom explores these relationship patterns in terms of marriage, the traditional and actualizing patterns can be usefully applied to the student-teacher relationship.

The traditional relationship is a contractual one based on the theory of obligation that is imposed from the outside. This relationship is traditionally role oriented. For example, one individual such as the teacher has a dominant role while other individuals, such as the students, have subordinate roles. It is through tradition that the dominant role has been played by the teacher.

Using Martin Buber's (1937) concept, the relationship can be described as having an "I-it" orientation between teacher and student. Usually the motivation for such a relationship lies in the security, for both teacher and student, of following the expectation of the roles.

An alternative to the traditional relationship between teacher

and student is the actualizing relationship. Core to core refers to the achieving of a level through which all three aspects of being can be expressed - the intellectual, the feeling, and the body responses. In order for teacher and students to achieve this goal they each have to be committed to expressing themselves on these three levels. The commitment is necessary for it focuses energy and priority setting on the three-fold goal.

The actualizing relationship is freely chosen and is more enhancing of teacher and student than any other relationship. Both have confident feelings that the relationship will continue, though differences and conflict may arise.

In the actualizing relationship the basic orientation is on each person's expression of his own personality. Teacher and students would be expressing their own unique "personhood". Again, using Buber's concept, the actualizing relationship is a "thou-thou" relationship as opposed to the superior "I" and inferior "it" of the traditional student-teacher relationship.

The motivation for the actualizing relationship is based on an inherent desire for growth. Through a gradual and continual process of sharing the thinking, feeling, and body responses of one another, teacher and students grow. Pines (1976) underscores this concept when he states that it is the interaction, especially with significant others, which lends meaning to learning. An individual's uniqueness, Pines continues, is determined not in a vacuum but rather is determined in a relation to others. Hence, in referring to Buber's "I-thou" relationship, it becomes apparent that one cannot fully know the "I"

without the "thou".

Combs (1973) contends that successful teachers use themselves, their unique potential and personality, as "effective instruments" in interaction with students. According to Combs, learning is a human event (which should not become a dehumanizing event) always consisting of two parts; the presenting of information or experience, and the discovery of the meaning of the information provided. While Combs believes the various educational systems handle the first part well, he suggests the second part is frequently ignored. He bases his argument on the premise that information and experience will affect a person's behaviour only in the degree to which he has discovered its personal meaning for him. Combs claims it is through human interactions, the human relationship which concerns itself with how things look from the other's point of view, that meaning can be explored and discovered. It appears that Combs is describing an actualizing student-teacher relationship.

Academic Achievement.

Several studies have contributed to an understanding of the relationship between self-actualization and academic achievement.

Studying college underachievers and the effects of two counseling treatments, Leib and Snyder (1967) found that increases in inner-directedness and semester grade point average were significantly related. These results occured for the entire sample.

Johns (cited in Knapp, 1976, p. 19), working with first year male and female college students reported a signficant correlation of .24 between grade point average and time competence in the female group.

This finding was supported in an unpublished doctoral dissertation (Green, 1967) which tested the relationship between the self-actualizing level of sophmore nursing students and their grade point averages. Of the two major scales, inner direction and time competence, only time competence showed a significant relationship to grade point average. Green also reported no significant relationship between either time competence or inner directedness and the clinical practice grade of the nursing students.

Studying a group of college underachievers and an academically successful group, who were matched on ability, LeMay and Damm (1968) found the academically successful group significantly more inner directed. This finding led the authors to conclude that the academically successful group demonstrated their effectiveness in directing their own lives relatively independently of peer pressure and urging, as opposed to the underachievers.

In each of the studies discussed both major dimensions of self-actualization, inner directedness and time competence, were tested. The results present an unclear picture in that either one dimension or the other shows a positive relationship to grade point average.

Leib and Snyder (1968) put forth the hypothesis that self-actualization, as reflected in the Inner Directed Scale, and ability may not be related directly but related secondarily through separate relationships with other variables. LeMay (1969) testing this hypothesis used the Inner Directed Scale of the POI, grade point averages, and controlled for aptitude in a study of 400 undergraduates. Findings were not significant for either the high or the low

intellectual-ability groups. However, there was a negative relationship between actualizing and grade point average in the middle ability group. This finding, notes LeMay, suggests that average ability students do not view attaining good grades as self-actualizing activity. LeMay further suggests that intelligence factors may determine academic success for bright and dull students more than for the average ability students.

Intellectual aptitude, then, may be one potentially important moderator variable in the analysis of relationships between actualizing and academic achievement.

Facilitative Conditions.

'Necessary and sufficient' Conditions.

Twenty years ago Carl Rogers (1957) delineated the psychological conditions which he hypothesized were both necessary and sufficient to bring about constructive personality change. By constructive personality change he meant changes toward greater personal integration and full functioning. These conditions on the part of therapist or counselor Rogers refers to as congruence, unconditional positive regard, and empathic understanding. Rogers (1957; 1962) further describes and defines the meaning of these conditions.

Congruence.

Congruence means accurately representing oneself as opposed to presenting a front or a facade. Personal growth is facilitated when the therapist "is what he is, openly being the feelings and attitudes which at the moment are flowing in him" (Rogers, 1962, p. 417). The therapist is able to communicate these feelings, if appropriate and beneficial to the client's welfare. The concept, as explained by

Meador and Rogers (1973), suggests an attempt by the therapist to be fully present to the client and means an expression of those feelings which persist rather than a sharing of every nuance of feeling.

Congruence means meeting another on a person to person basis without defensiveness or hiding behind roles. It means also, a transparency on the part of the therapist allowing his realness to be seen by the client. Rogers (1962, p. 419) points out that congruence may be the most crucial quality in a relationship.

Unconditional Positive Regard.

Unconditional positive regard refers to the acceptance of another without placing conditions upon that acceptance or making that acceptance selective, judgemental, reserved, or evaluative. It means a prizing of the individual with an acceptance of both weaknesses and strengths. It involves a caring for the client, in a non-possessive way, as a person with potentialities. There is respect for the person as a separate individual allowing him "to be whatever feelings are real in him at the moment... a kind of liking which has strength and which is not demanding" (Rogers, 1962, p. 420).

Empathic Understanding.

Empathic understanding, as described by Rogers, means a sensing and a penetrating of the feeling world of the client "as if it were your own but without ever losing the 'as if' quality ... to sense the client's anger, fear, or confusion as if it were your own, yet without your own anger, fear, or confusion getting bound up in it" (Rogers, 1957, p. 99). Through this process the therapist can often go beyond the words of the client to the surrounding feelings of which the

client is hardly aware. As the world of the client is understood by the therapist, he can then communicate to the client the significant fragments of that understanding.

Rogers (1962) indicates that this kind of understanding is very rare. People, whether helping professionals or non-professionals, neither receive nor offer it very frequently. Instead, what is offered is an evaluative understanding. Experiencing another's viewpoint, Rogers suggests, means risking changes in oneself. Since changes tend to be resisted, the other's viewpoint is analyzed and evaluated in terms of one's own experiences. Change is likely to occur when the therapist or counselor can "grasp the moment to moment experiencing occuring in the inner world of the client, as the client sees it and feels it without losing the separateness of his own identity in this empathic process." (Rogers, 1962, p. 420).

While understanding accurately is very important the communication of the intent to understand is also helpful. The intent to understand communicates to the individual that his feelings and experiences are worth understanding and that he himself has value and worth (Rogers, 1962, p. 420).

Not only is it necessary that the therapist or counselor communicates these attitudes, but they must be perceived by the client. Rogers (1962) emphasizes that development in personality and change in behaviour are predicted when the client perceives, to a minimal degree, the genuineness, acceptance, and empathy of the counselor or therapist.

The philosophy implicit in Rogers' theorizing and from which he makes his hypothesis is based on a deep respect for people and their

potentialities. Without believing in the worth of an individual it may not be possible to experience desire to understand, caring, and enough self-respect to make oneself known to another.

Measurement of Conditions.

Charles Truax set about the task of developing measurements of Rogers' core conditions. Initially the scales he developed were tied to Rogers' labels but later evidence suggested slightly modified identifying labels were more descriptive of the dimensions. After experimenting with the scales over a trial period Truax (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967, p. 43) believed accurate empathy to be a more appropriate term for empathic understanding, nonpossessive warmth more descriptive than unconditional positive regard, and the word genuineness more precise than congruence. In developing the measurement scales, Truax spelled out the operational meaning of the concepts. The Truax scales (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967) and later modifications of them (Carkhuff, 1969) continue to be used in live observations and tape recordings to assess the levels of the conditions of empathy, warmth, and genuineness offered in counseling and therapy relationships. They are the basis for core condition ratings, and thus the findings, in a large number of research studies. The scales have been used in training programs and for research purposes in other helping professions including nursing (Kalisch, 1971).

In addition, Truax (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967, p. 74) translated these scales into a Relationship Questionnaire which can be answered by a client, student, or other helpee. The questionnaire measures the helpee's perception of empathy, nonpossessive warmth, and

genuineness offered by the therapist, teacher or other helper. The development of the questionnaire closely followed the work of Barrett-Lennard (1962) who had earlier developed a Relationship Inventory for use with either, or both, client and therapist.

Effectiveness of Conditions.

There is a large body of research evidence (summarized in Carkhuff and Berenson 1967 and 1977; Carkhuff, 1969; Truax and Carkhuff, 1967) which indicates the critical importance of the three core conditions to human encounters in which a change in behaviour is the goal. Most of these studies involve therapist levels of the conditions and client outcome. Taken together, the studies suggest that the greater the degree to which the core conditions are present in a relationship, the more constructive the personality change on the part of the client on a variety of criteria (Carkhuff and Berenson, 1977).

In addition, these findings hold for counselors and therapists regardless of their theoretical orientation, training, and academic achievement (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967). The findings also hold for a variety of clients including hospitalized patients, out-patients, college counselees and juvenile delinquents (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967).

Evidence from research over the past decade indicates, as well, that significant relationships can have constructive or deteriorative consequences on intellectual, physical,and emotional functioning. More simply, the interactions between helpers and helpees have a 'for better or for worse' effect upon the helpee. The facilitating or retarding effects "can be accounted for by a core of dimensions" - the triad of conditions present in the relationship (Carkhuff and

Berenson, 1977, p. 5).

Several studies have measured client perception of the core conditions through the use of the questionnaire or inventory filled out by the client. An often quoted study of client-perceived facilitative conditions was conducted by Barrett-Lennard (1962). The results of that study clearly demonstrated that clients who showed the greatest change throughout therapy perceived significantly higher levels of facilitative (therapeutic) conditions from their therapists than did clients who showed the least change.

A study by Truax (1966) of perceived core conditions and therapeutic outcome indicated a very strong relationship between juvenile delinquents' perception of facilitative conditions from their therapist and positive changes on a variety of outcome measures. This study also supports Rogers' basic tenet that it is necessary for clients to perceive the core conditions.

Application to the Learning Environment.

Counseling and psychotherapy can be viewed as aspects of interpersonal relations and learning. Thus, the facilitative or core conditions important to the therapeutic encounter have implications for other relationships including the relationship between teacher and student, parent and child, nurse and patient. In fact, the evidence has important implications for personal conduct in any human encounter.

Being facilitative toward another means grasping the meaning, significance, and content of another's experiences and feelings. To do so requires acceptance and a non-possessive warmth of the person. However, these two conditions are meaningful only in the context of genuineness (Rogers, 1962). Unless, for example, a teacher is genuine

in relating to the student, first grader or adult, the empathy and warmth are lost, or may even have a detrimental effect. "To be understood deeply or to receive communication in a 'warm' voice can be deeply threatening if it comes from an unpredictable 'phony' or a potential enemy" (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967, p. 142).

The research evidence indicates relationships, even though intended to be helpful can be for better or worse. While the teacher may be focusing on changes in the learning of arithmetic, psychology, nursing, or any other content area, the encounter has the potential to be helpful or harmful to the student. By the same token, every nurse-patient relationship has the potential for positive or negative patient learning and change. Parents, teachers, nurses - helpers who offer either high or low levels of facilitative conditions have the potential to effect further constructive change or deterioration for the individual.

Because of the crucial nature of the helping relationship Rogers (1962) and others (Berenson and Carkhuff, 1977; Truax and Carkhuff, 1967) urge selection of individuals for training and preparation as helpers (such as therapists, counselors, educators and nurses) who already possess, in their ordinary relationships with others, a high degree of the facilitative conditions. Further, the educational program for these individuals would plan for student experiencing of empathy, acceptance, and genuineness. By feeling understood and accepted during their training and education, by being in contact with genuineness in their instructors, these students would grow into more competent practitioners (Carkhuff and Berenson,

1977, p. 255; Rogers, 1962, p. 427).

The statement, good teachers and good therapists are born not made, is based upon the belief that the core dimensions described are part of the therapist's or teacher's personality (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967, p. 107). While this statement is no doubt true there is accumulating evidence from various disciplines which indicates training in the communication of empathy, warmth, and genuineness can lead to more effective relationships (Aiken and Aiken, 1973; Kalish, 1971; Peitchinis, 1972; Truax and Carkhuff, 1967, pp. 108 - 112).

Student-teacher Relationship.

The research findings in the field of psychotherapy, in regard to therapist facilitative attitudes and their impact on the relationship between therapist and client, have been applied to the classroom and curriculum experimentation (Aspy, 1965; Carkhuff, 1969; Rogers, 1969; Schmuck and Schmuck, 1974; Weinstein and Fantini, 1970). The humanistically oriented educators presume the goal of education is to develop character and personality as well as intellectual skills. They also suggest that the path leading toward this goal is the facilitation of change and learning (Rogers, 1969, p. 104). Only as students learn how to learn, learn how to relate, and learn how to choose from a well-analyzed value system are they prepared to survive the shock of the future (Toffler, 1971, pp. 414 - 418).

Rogers (1969) hypothesized that the initiation of the kind of learning described above rests less upon the teacher's knowledge of content area or specific teaching technique, than upon the empathy, warmth, and genuineness the teacher experiences and communicates to

the students. This quality of personal relationship and the classroom climate it stimulates promotes in students, according to Rogers, self-motivated, personally maturing, significant learning. Rogers seems to be saying that students exposed to this kind of relationship can move toward actualizing their own unique potential.

A study by Louise Tyler (1964) compared the concept of an ideal teacher-student relationship with the concept of the ideal therapeutic relationship. The data of the latter was compiled in a study by Fiedler (1950). With the aid of factor analysis and a factor array sort Tyler (1964) found that "there is a great similarity" (p. 117) between the two relationships. Where Fiedler found that therapists agreed on the most effective type of therapeutic relationship, Tyler also found significant agreement by educators as to the nature of the ideal teacher-student relationship. Results from each study indicated that the ideal therapeutic and ideal teacher-student relationship were very much like an ideal interpersonal relationship. Specifically, Tyler's findings conclude that the ideal teacher-student relationship is one which involves "good or excellent communication, in a peer relation which tends to be emotionally close" (Tyler, 1964, p. 116).

Millar (1976) investigated the characteristics of effective teachers from the point of view of the teachers themselves, the students, and teachers-in-training. Though there were some problems with the questionnaire developed, all three groups indicated the teacher's personality as the core ingredient of effectiveness.

The results of both Tyler (1964) and Millar (1976) are supported from the student perspective in a study by Rosendahl (1973). Students

who perceived the teacher-student relationship as superior described it as warm, truthful, caring, and student-centered. Those students indicated they found learning exciting, believed they were involved with the teachers in learning, and found the relationship meaningful. Those students who perceived the relationship as inferior described it as cold, strict, and teacher-centered. Those students indicated they felt the teacher's concern was for the transmission of facts and knowledge without interest for the students. The relationship was described as not meaningful.

A recent article (Saltmarsh, Hubele, and Canada, 1975) suggests that students do not perceive a peer relationship with their teachers. Students see instead that the learning task cannot be shared, that mistakes and experimentation are often unrewarded, and that teachers are evaluators and grade-givers. The authors urge teachers to balance concern for task achievement with an equal concern for the persons involved. "Many times academic endeavors are accomplished with great cost to human dignity and welfare" (Saltmarsh et al., 1975, p. 231). To encourage the development of self-directed, socially responsible learners, these writers invite educators to put into operation Maslow's model of growth by utilizing the following precepts: people motivate people; co-operation and interdependence are superior to competition and threat as systems of motivation; trust between people facilitates freedom for productive interaction; freedom of interaction promotes effective learning (p. 231).

Academic Achievement.

To support the hypothesis that facilitation of significant learning rests upon the presence of core conditions within the personal relation-

ship between teacher and student, Rogers (1969, pp. 11 - 126) reports accounts from various teachers and students as well as evidence from several unpublished dissertations and manuscripts. Results from experimentation with affective curriculums and experiential learning (Borton, 1970; Gorman, 1972; Schmuck and Schmuck, 1974; Weinstein and Fantini, 1970) generally seem to support Rogers' position and his definition of learning.

A study by Christenson (1960) investigated the relationship between school learning achievement and degree of teacher warmth. The findings indicated that students receiving relatively high levels of accurate empathy, non-possessive warmth and genuineness from their teachers (as measured by the Truax rating scales) showed significantly greater achievement in reading (as measured by the Stanford Reading Achievement Test) than students receiving relatively lower levels of the facilitative conditions.

The original results of Aspy were confirmed and elaborated upon in a study by Aspy and Hadlock (cited in Truax and Carkhuff, 1967, p. 116). Students taught by teachers high in the facilitative conditions showed a reading achievement gain of 2.5 years during a five month period, while students taught by low conditions teachers gained only 0.7 years.

Results reported by Kratochvil, Carkhuff and Berenson (1969) and Stoffer (1970) show that elementary school teachers who communicate high levels of the core dimensions are able to become signfiicant sources of learning in academic areas for their students. This, the authors conclude, is not to say that teacher knowledge of subject matter is not a relevant variable. It is to say that the emotional-interpersonal functioning of the teacher is related to the

intellectual achievement of students.

A search of the literature failed to reveal studies which investigated the level of facilitative conditions perceived by students from their teachers and their academic achievement. However, on the basis of the preceeding research and theory, it could reasonably be expected that student perception of facilitative conditions may have a positive effect on their grade achievement.

Relationship Between Actualizing and Facilitative Conditions.

Berenson and Carkhuff (1977, p. 217) make the statement that individuals are growing constructively when they move toward functioning with higher levels of empathy, warmth, and genuineness, and are deteriorating when they move in the direction of lower functioning on these dimensions. The authors describe the individual who functions with high levels of the facilitative conditions as one who is involved in a lifelong search for actualization for others as well as himself.

Both in the area of counseling and education, studies have explored the relationship between self-actualization and facilitative conditions. This research has focused on aspects of therapist and teacher effectiveness and also client-therapist and teacher-student relationship effects. In each of these studies, the relationship between actualization and facilitative conditions is examined in terms of the previously discussed theoretical constructs.

Research in Counseling.

In a study conducted by Foulds (1969) judges rated the levels of the facilitative conditions offered by graduate students to their clients then related those ratings to the actualizing level of the students. The results indicated that the communication of empathy and

genuineness on the part of the student counselors was significantly related to student self-actualizing level. Foulds relates the significance of his findings as support for Rogers (1957) theory which hypothesizes that the psychological good health of the counselor is related to the ability to provide facilitative conditions during counseling. A replication study (Winborn and Rowe, 1972) did not confirm Fould's results yielding instead a zero correlation coefficient.

In studies dealing with self-actualizing counselor levels and perceived facilitative conditions on the part of the client, Hines (1973) in an unpublished dissertation found that counselors with higher self-actualizing levels were perceived by their clients as also offering higher levels of the core dimensions, as measured by the Truax Relationship Questionnaire.

A recently published study (Selfridge, 1976) showed a strong positive relationship between self-actualizing level and counselor effectiveness as perceived by clients, thus supporting the hypothesis of Hines and the basic theory of Rogers.

Pierce and Schauble (1971) assessing the functioning of counseling students on the facilitative dimensions found that students working with high-level, well functioning practicum instructors showed significant development in the facilitative dimensions. It can be inferred that the high-level functioning instructors were probably functioning at a higher actualizing level than those working with students that showed no positive change in the facilitative dimensions. The work of these investigators supports Carkhuff's (1969, p. 9) contention that counseling instructors should be carefully selected (and maintained) on the

basis of high-level functioning. It is Carkhuff's conviction that students tend to converge on the level of functioning of their instructors.

Research in Education.

A recent unpublished dissertation (Boston, 1975) investigated the probability of teacher self-actualizing level being a correlate and possible predictor of teacher success. Teachers were identified as most and least successful with an instrument that measured, in part, aspects of their ability to impart facilitative conditions in the learning environment. The major hypothesis was supported in that there was a significant positive relationship between level of self-actualizing and degree of successful teaching. Boston's work supports a basic Maslow premise that an individual can be accepting and nurturing to others only after he has come to accept himself and value his own nurturing as highly as that of others.

Similar results were obtained (Jury, Willower, and DeLacy, 1975) in research with a large sample of public school teachers. The prediction that level of teacher self-actualization would be directly related to humanism in teacher pupil control ideology was supported. The authors conclude that the self-actualizing individual is characterized by satisfied lower needs, on the Maslow hierarchy, and as a result is not likely to see students as part of a threatening environment.

Macklin and Rossiter (1976) explored the relationship between interpersonal communication and level of self-actualizing of graduate students in a Faculty of Education. The Interpersonal Communication Report, devised by the researchers, bears much resemblance to the core dimensions described by Rogers. The results showed that students

who were more self-actualizing also reported being more expressive and self-disclosing (which the authors equate to the genuineness variable) and more able to understand others (equated to the empathy variable). The investigators suggest their research supports the theory of both Maslow and Rogers that interpersonal communication is related to psychological health.

The relationship between the facilitative conditions and the self-actualization of nursing students was investigated by Rosendahl (1973). The results revealed a moderate relationship significant at the .05 level, between the facilitative conditions perceived by students and the students' increase in the major dimension of self-actualization, inner-directed support. The author concludes the finding supports Rogers' (1969) statement that students become more fully functioning human beings when they experience an empathic, warm and genuine relationship with their teacher.

Nursing Education Perspective.

While nursing research applying the relevant theoretical constructs has been included throughout this chapter, the following section serves to illustrate how nursing writers have related aspects of the theory to nursing education.

The Growth Approach.

According to Gunter (1969) there are two concerns in nursing education - education of the student and care of the patient. The author states that educating the student involves providing an environment in which the student can develop her potential; caring for the patient involves providing an environment (or emotional climate) in which the patient can use his potential or resources for

recovery and growth. Gunter sees the two concerns as interrelated "in as much as the emotional development of the student into a functioning professional nurse influences the kind of care, or the kind of interpersonal relationship which she will be able to establish with patients" (Gunter, 1969, p. 60).

Kramer, McDonnell and Reed (1972) assert that development of self-actualization is often an overtly stated goal for students in nursing programs. They point out that Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory often provides the framework for nursing curriculums. Within such curriculum development the goal of the nurse and the ultimate goal of the educational process is "to meet the patient's requirements of lower order needs for food, drink, comfort and safety, while assisting the patient toward the fulfillment of higher order needs: love, esteem, belonging and self-actualizing" (Kramer et al, 1972, p. 112). In order to accomplish such goals the authors emphasize that the student must be consistently helped to "be aware of her own stage of development, of the effects of her values on the values of others, and of her own need to grow and to 'become'" (Kramer et al, 1972, p. 112).

Nursing educators who regard the on-going development of each learner's human potential as a major goal of education have indicated through their published work support for the following characteristics of a nursing education leading toward that goal: the comprehension of both the affective and cognitive domains; the understanding of a time frame incorporating the past, present and future; the acceptance and achievement of both living and dying; the incorporation of other goals such as social, aesthetic, and spiritual in addition to intellectual goals; the occurrence of self-discovery, self-expression

and fulfilment; the promotion of dialogue, introspection, integration, and action.

The Nursing Student.

Malcolm Knowles (1968), who coined the term andragogy to describe the art and science of teaching adults, suggested that adults and children differ as learners in three often over-looked areas; self-concept, experience, and orientation. A nursing educator and researcher, Rosendahl (1974) points out the implications of this information for nursing education.

First, nursing students, as adult learners, view themselves as responsible, mature learners capable of self-direction. They anticipate an empathic, genuine, and nonpossessively warm relationship with their teacher which supports and further develops this self-image. Secondly, nursing students have a varied and diverse background of experience which they want to share in a meaningful way with others and which they want valued. Thirdly, nursing students have a problem-centered orientation and want learning to be useful and applicable to their concerns and problems.

In addition, recent evidence (Sheehy, 1976) further suggests that adults have "passages" or growth phases with resulting developmental tasks. These phases and tasks, which distinguish the adult, must be recognized as influencing learning readiness.

The Nursing Educator.

Florence Nightingale, in 1859, stated the function of nursing was to put the patient in the best condition for nature to act upon him (Nightingale, 1946). When these optimum conditions are present the patient can maximize his potential for wellness. In regard to

learning, Carl Rogers (1969) makes an analagous statement when he suggests the function of an educator is to be a facilitator of learning who provides optimum conditions in which the learner can learn. In addition Rogers points out that the learning itself can only be accomplished by the individual learner. Aware of the concept a century prior, Nightingale, in regard to teaching nurses, writes "I do not pretend to teach her how, I ask her to teach herself" (Nightingale; 1946, p. 1).

A current statement on the subject emphasizes that the focus of the nursing educator's effort should be "to create an atmosphere conducive to self-motivated personally maturing, significant learning" (Pugh, 1976, p. 52). The behaviour of the teacher more than any other factor determines the nature of the learning climate and in turn the knowledge, skills, and attitudes acquired (Rosendahl, 1974).

Nursing writers charge in similar fashion to Combs (1973) that the system and methods of educating nurses must focus on helping students find meaning in learning (Diers, 1972, Litwack, 1971; Mauksch, 1972). Only then, these authors state, will students become autonomous practitioners, self-directed adults, and life-long learners.

Kramer et al (1972) press nursing educators to formulate objectives that are clear in specifying how students are to be helped to develop self-actualizing characteristics. Of particular importance to the authors, based on their research findings, is the development of inner-directedness through which new practitioners are prepared to function with their own built-in system of positive feedback which in turn retains those, presumably positive, values learned in nursing school.

Based on Knowle's (1968) premises of the adult learner, nursing educators can facilitate learning by helping their students self-diagnose their own needs; plan how to meet their learning needs; share their learning in a process of mutual inquiry; and evaluate their progress, which in turn leads to further self-diagnosis (Rosendahl, 1974).

In order to establish this kind of learning environment which supports the broad goals of nursing education, the educator must herself be a learner. A teacher who is learning and actively seeking psychological growth, models authenticity, value of herself and others, understanding, and caring (Pugh, 1976). She recognizes that she herself and the unique way she has of using all that she is, her attitudes, values, knowledge and skills, is the most powerful tool to effect change in herself and others (Travelbee, 1971). However, as the psychotherapeutic literature points out, the way one uses oneself can effect change in others that is for "better or for worse" (Carkhuff and Berenson, 1977, p. 228). Nursing educators, then, have the potential to facilitate or retard the learning, growth, and development of their students. Students who graduate without experiencing help to grow and learn during their nursing program may pass on the negative effects to patients, co-workers, and students.

The Relationship.

Helping nursing students find meaning in learning involves establishing a relationship of warmth, genuineness and empathy (Gunter, 1969). As trust develops, open communication occurs in which students raise relevant questions, pose plausible solutions, and express personal feelings (Pugh, 1976).

If nursing educators are committed to the process of developing

the full range of a student's potential, they can through their personal relationship help the student develop her own philosophy of life, death, and reality. The nursing student's philosophy, according to Weidenbach (1964, p. 13), provides the framework for purpose and meaning in her life and work.

Viktor Frankl (1963), who based his theory of logotherapy on the premise that constructive living involves learning to find meaning in one's life, suggests this meaning involves a search for personal values. In an atmosphere of authenticity, warmth and understanding both nursing student and teacher can broaden their perspective so that "the whole spectrum of meaning and values becomes conscious and visible" (Frankl, 1963, p. 174).

Summary of Definitions.

The following is a synopsis of the definitions used throughout this chapter. The definitions are categorized and collectively presented to provide a convenient reference.

Self-actualization.

Self-actualization refers to the process of becoming all that one is capable of becoming by fulfilling one's potentialities.

Support Orientation.

Support orientation refers to an individual's mode of reaction which predominately arises from within or from outside oneself.

1. Inner-directedness occurs when the source of direction and support for one's thinking, feeling, and body responses arises from internal motivations.
2. Other-directedness occurs when the source of direction and support

for one's thinking, feeling, and body responses is sought from the opinions and approval of others.

3. Support Ratio is the balance or ratio of other orientation to inner orientation which in turn reflects the predominant mode of reacting.

Time Orientation.

Time orientation refers to the degree to which an individual lives in the present as opposed to the past or the future.

1. Time competence relates to the meaningful continuity of the past and future to the present.
2. Time incompetence relates to the concern for the past and, or, the future without relating that concern to the context of the present.
3. Time Ratio is the balance or ratio of time incompetence to time competence which in turn reflects the degree of orientation to past, present, and future.

Facilitative Conditions.

Facilitative conditions are those psychological conditions or elements that promote constructive personality change.

1. Accurate empathy is the sensing and understanding of another's world as he or she experiences it.
2. Nonpossessive warmth is the acceptance of another, without conditions or demands, based upon respect for the person's human potential for growth.
3. Genuineness is the congruence or realness expressed to another in a way that has relevance for a relationship.

Hypotheses.

The following seven hypotheses are formulated upon the theory and research previously presented in this chapter. Grouping of the hypotheses under the four headings may serve to clarify for the reader the relationship between the hypotheses and the questions posed in Chapter 1.

Self-actualization and Facilitative Conditions.

Time competence and inner directedness each represent major aspects of self-actualization. It is expected that as students perceive more of the facilitative conditions in their student-teacher relationship they will show movement toward self-actualization as opposed to movement away from self-actualization. In other words, it is expected that students who move toward becoming time competent and inner directed will perceive more empathy, nonpossessive warmth, and genuineness in their relationship with their teacher than students who move toward becoming time incompetent and other directed. This expectation is expressed in the following three hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1.

Students who show a gain in time competence perceive a higher level of each facilitative condition within their student-teacher relationship than students who show a gain in time incompetence.

Hypothesis 2.

Students who show a gain in inner directedness perceive a higher level of each facilitative condition within their student-teacher relationship than students who show a gain in other directedness.

Hypothesis 3.

Students who show a gain in both time competence and inner directedness perceive a higher level of each facilitative condition within their student-teacher relationship than students who show a gain in time incompetence and other directedness.

Self-actualization and Academic Achievement.

Though the research results are inconclusive, there is some evidence suggesting that self-actualized students may be more successful academically than students who are not self-actualized. Students who are either more time competent or inner directed may achieve a higher grade point average than students who are either more time incompetent or other directed. The following hypotheses are formulated in regard to this statement.

Hypothesis 4.

Students who are more time competent achieve higher grade point average than students who are more time incompetent.

Hypothesis 5.

Students who are more inner directed achieve higher grade point average than students who are more other directed.

Facilitative Conditions and Academic Achievement.

There is substantial theoretical support for the expectation that students who achieve academically, as opposed to those who do not, may perceive more of the facilitative conditions in their relationship with their teacher. Upon this assumption the following hypothesis has been developed.

Hypothesis 6.

Students who achieve higher grade point average perceive a higher

level of each facilitative condition in their student-teacher relationship than students who have lower grade point average.

Student-teacher Relationship.

The elements that are considered to be fundamental to an ideal therapeutic relationship appear to be fundamental as well to the ideal teacher-student relationship. If students rate their relationship with their teacher highly, it is anticipated they will perceive more of the facilitative conditions which in turn bear much similarity to the elements described in the ideal teacher-student relationship. Hypothesis 7 expresses the preceeding expectation.

Hypothesis 7.

Students who rate their student-teacher relationship as superior perceive a higher level of each facilitative condition than students who rate their student-teacher relationship as inferior.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

The content of chapter three deals with a description of the sample selected for the study, the instruments used, and the procedure involved in conducting the study.

Sample.

A primary requirement in choosing a sample for this study related to the need for locating a group of adult students who would be in close contact with one teacher over a period of time. During this period of time a negative, positive, or indifferent relationship could develop and the perceptions of the students in regard to the relationship could more accurately be tested.

First year nursing students enrolled in a three year Diploma in Nursing program at a large hospital in the city of Edmonton fulfilled this requirement. Students began an association with one instructor shortly after the program began. Though students received lectures from a number of instructors, one of them became their 'clinical instructor'. The ratio of one clinical instructor to ten students involved 64 hours of contact, primarily in the clinical setting, over the period from September to December. The hours of contact between the same clinical instructor and group of students increased to 96 hours during a final, intensive clinical experience period of three weeks. In total, there were approximately 160 hours of contact between the clinical instructor and her group of students.

The nursing program from September to the latter part of January includes classroom lectures and labs in Nursing Fundamentals, Anatomy

and Physiology, Psychology, Sociology, and Interpersonal Relationships. During this time students are posted to various clinical settings where they have the opportunity to directly apply the theoretical principles, learned in the classroom, to patient care. Students are supervised in the clinical area by their clinical instructor who assists them to apply and integrate the classroom theory to the actual practice of nursing. For students this period of time represents their first exposure to patient care. The first part of the nursing program concludes with the concentrated clinical experience in January where students are in consistent contact with their clinical instructor.

First year nursing students were chosen over second and third year students because the hours of contact with one instructor were greater. Rationale for the selection of first year students was further provided by Ilardi and May (1968) who found that among a group of baccalaureate student nurses responding to the Personal Orientation Inventory significant growth in the direction of self-actualization took place especially during the first year.

A week prior to the commencement of this study, the director of the nursing program asked the first year nursing students to voluntarily participate in the research on their own free time. The director indicated to the students that the study related to nursing education and was being conducted as part of the requirement for a Master's degree.

Of 105 students, 91 participated in the Personal Orientation Inventory pretest. During testing one student became ill and was unable to complete the test which reduced the number to 90 students. On the post test 61 students participated, however two inventories

without identifying numbers were rejected which reduced the final sample to 59 subjects. These 59 students also completed the Relationship Questionnaire and the Relationship Rating and Description Question. The final sample would likely have been considerably larger had not two groups of students experienced an instructor change the latter part of December. As a result of the changed conditions, these students, numbering 20, were excluded from the study.

All subjects completing the study were females between the ages of 17 and 23 with a mean age of 18.5 years. Each subject had completed grade XII and had been admitted to the three year Diploma in Nursing program in September, 1977.

Instruments.

Personal Orientation Inventory.

The Personal Orientation Inventory, or POI, developed by Everett Shostrom (1964) was used as a pre and post test to determine if the student's level of self-actualizing increased. It is the only published inventory attempting to measure the self-actualizing process.

Description and Scoring.

The inventory consists of 150 paired opposite-choice statements of value and behaviour judgments believed to be important in the development of self-actualizing or personal growth or full functioning. In responding to the POI the subject is asked to choose the one statement in each pair that is true, or mostly true of himself. Subjects can complete the test in about 30 minutes.

The inventory is scored on two major scales, the Inner Directed Scale and the Time Competent Scale, then rescored on ten subscales.

The subscales are considered to measure particular personality characteristics associated with self-actualizing.

Two excerpts from the inventory of paired items serves as an example of how each of the major scales is tapped.

61.a. I only feel free to express warm feelings to my friends.

b. I feel free to express both warm and hostile feelings to my friends.

110.a. Living for the future gives my life its primary meaning.

b. Only when living for the future ties into living for the present does my life have meaning.

In the first excerpt, number 61, b answer correlates with inner-directedness while in the second excerpt, number 110, b answer correlates with time competence. The inventory consists of 23 items on the Time Competent Scale and 127 items on the Inner Directed Scale. The paired opposite construction of the inventory necessitates four separate scorings, one each for time competence, time incompetence, inner directedness and other-directedness. From these raw scores a ratio score for each major scale can be calculated and in doing so unanswered items are corrected for and scoring is checked.

For this study, the two major scales measuring time competence and inner-directedness were used since they cover the overall dimensions of self-actualizing (Shostrom, 1972, p. 7; 18). As well, the two major scales are the only scales that do not have overlapping items (Shostrom, 1972, p. 21). A number of studies have used

the two major scales in the analysis of their results. Knapp (1965) found the inner-directed scale the best single estimate of self-actualizing while Kramer et al (1972) verified the use of the two major scales as valid shorthand indicators. Damm (1969) using a sample of high school students found that an overall measure of self-actualizing can best be obtained by using the raw score on the inner-directed scale. Working with an older population of 656 college students and student nurses Damm (1972) later found that using the raw scores of the two major scales was the best predictor of an overall measure of the POI.

Norms.

A profile sheet (Appendix A) for the POI was developed from adult norms. Raw scores when plotted are automatically converted into standard scores. The mean standard score for each scale is 50, with a standard deviation of 10. Norms in the form of plotted profiles have been established for a number of varied groups including entering college freshmen (Jenkins, cited in Shostrom, 1972) and sophmore student nurses (Ilardi and May, 1968). Percentile norms based on a large sample of students were developed for college freshmen (Shostrom, 1972, p. 9).

According to Shostrom (1973) and Knapp (1976) actualizing persons score between T standard scores of 50 and 60 which represents raw scores of 18 to 20 (inclusive) on the time competent scale and raw scores of 87 to 101 (inclusive) on the inner-directed scale. Non-actualizing persons score below the T standard score of 50 which is represented by raw scores of 86 for inner-direction and 17 for time competence. All T scores over 60, which have an equivalent raw score

of 21 for the time competent scale and 102 for the inner-directed scale, are interpreted as pseudo-actualizing scores (Knapp, 1976, p. 73). Pseudo-actualizing scores "may be interpreted as 'over-enthusiastic' attempts to take the test in accordance with 'rightness' from reading Maslow and other humanistic literature" (Shostrom, 1973, p. 480).

A summary of the raw score and standard score ranges for actualizing, non-actualizing, and pseudo-actualizing, in regard to the two major scales, is presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2

RAW SCORE AND STANDARD SCORE RANGES

FOR ACTUALIZING, NON-ACTUALIZING, AND PSEUDO-ACTUALIZING

	Time Competent Scale		Inner-Directed Scale	
	Raw Score	T Score	Raw Score	T Score
Actualizing Range	18-20	50-60	87-101	50-60
Non-actualizing Range	17↓	49-20	86↓	49-20
Pseudo-actualizing Range	21↑	61-80	102↑	61-80

Data Compiled from Shostrom (1972).

Validity and Reliability.

In an early study (Shostrom, 1964) validity of the POI was demonstrated, in that the inventory was shown to discriminate between those persons who have been observed as having a relatively high degree of self-actualizing behaviour and those people who do not indicate this behaviour. Prominent, certified psychologists carefully selected the members of each group.

Further validity of the POI was reported by Fox, Knapp and Michael (1968) who found hospitalized psychiatric patients significantly lower on POI scales than the self-actualized and normal groups of Shostrom's (1964) study. The POI scales also correlate negatively with alcoholism (Zaccaria and Weir, 1967) felony (Fisher, 1968) and Eysenck's neuroticism score (Knapp, 1965). Working with counseling students, McClain (1970) offered evidence that the POI does differentiate levels of self-actualizing among normal adults. In addition, high scores on the POI are associated with helper effectiveness (Graff and Bradshaw, 1970; Hines, 1973) teacher development (Cragg, 1976) and teacher effectiveness (Boston, 1975; Jury, Willower and DeLacy, 1975).

According to Knapp (1976, p. 76), the concept of reliability can be inappropriately applied to the POI because the inventory was developed on the idea of dynamic traits of personality. Studies in counseling, for example, indicate that the POI is very sensitive to experiences during the interval between administration. However, Klavetter and Mogar (1967), who administered the POI twice within a one week interval, reported reliability coefficients of .71 for time competence and .77 for inner-direction. Wise and Davis (1975) reported test-retest coefficients of .75 for time competence and .88 for inner directedness based on readministration of the POI after a two week interval.

Faking.

Since the POI depends upon self-reported behaviour and judgment, it is subject to conscious or unconscious attempts to fake responses. An intellectualized response, represented as pseudo-self-actualizing,

derives from a knowledge of the theory and results in an excessively high profile. On the other hand, a faking response, based on an attempt to present oneself in a favorable or socially desirable light, results in a generally depressed profile.

Braun and La Faro (1969) administered the POI to four college student groups under standard instructions, followed by readministration with instructions to make a "good impression" or appear "well-adjusted". The readministration or faked scores were less favorable in all four groups than scores achieved under standard administration. Similar results were reported by Foulds and Warehime (1971) who concluded that deliberate attempts by college students to "fake good" produced lower scores and profiles uncharacteristic of actualizing persons. The investigators suggest that students' conceptions of the self-actualizing individual differ somewhat from the concepts employed in the POI.

In a series of studies Warehime, Routh, and Foulds (1974) presented to a group of college students information about the nature of self-actualizing and to another group, no information. The results indicated that the group receiving information increased their POI scores. Braun and LaFaro (1969) had previously reported the same finding. However, when Warehime et al (1974) asked students to respond to the inventory honestly and not on the basis of the information their scores were unaffected. The authors conclude that the POI is "remarkably resistent" to faking. They also remark that the inner-directed scale is more resistent to faking than a number of other self-report inventories.

The Relationship Questionnaire.

In order to assess the levels of the core conditions perceived

by the students in their relationship with their instructor, the Truax (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967) Relationship Questionnaire (Appendix B) was used. This questionnaire and the Barrett-Lennard (1962) Relationship Inventory appear to be the two published instruments available for this sort of measurement.

Description and Scoring.

The Truax Relationship Questionnaire consists of 141 True or False items which can measure five facilitative conditions: accurate empathy, nonpossessive warmth, genuineness, intensity and intimacy of interpersonal contact, and concreteness. The questionnaire was developed by Charles Truax (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967, p. 74) in 1963 and represents his attempt to translate the previous scales, used for rating objective tape recordings, into a questionnaire format which can be answered by the client or other subject. In this respect, it follows closely the earlier work of Barrett-Lennard (1962) who first developed an inventory to measure a client's perception of psychological conditions offered by a counselor or therapist.

The Truax Relationship Questionnaire was selected for use rather than the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory for several reasons. The statements in the former relate more specifically to the teacher-student relationship. In fact the preliminary instructions which form part of the questionnaire make reference to the "relationship with your instructor" (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967, p. 74). As well, Lin (1973) noted that the true-false item endorsement of the Relationship Questionnaire was less annoying to subjects than the six-point rating scale (from -3 to +3) required by the Barrett-Lennard Inventory.

Finally, Lin (1973) reported low intercorrelations for the Barrett-Lennard unconditionality scale and the other three measures of the Inventory.

Subjects respond to the Relationship Questionnaire items as either mostly true or mostly false. In some cases a true response is correct and in others a false response is correct. A scoring key for the Questionnaire is included in Appendix B. The Questionnaire can be completed in approximately 30 minutes.

In this study, as in others (Hines, 1973; Rosendahl, 1972) the specific conditions being assessed were accurate empathy, nonpossessive warmth and genuineness. These are the conditions considered central to a helper-helpee relationship (Rogers, 1957; Truax and Carkhuff, 1967). The subscales relating to the perception of these conditions were used which in turn reduced the number of items from 141 to 129.

The following excerpts from the questionnaire provide an example of each of the three subscales.

17. He can read me like a book.

18. He usually is not very interested in what I have to say.

21. I am just another student to him.

A true answer for item 17 correlates with accurate empathy, a false answer for 18 correlates with nonpossessive warmth, and a false answer for item 21 correlates with genuineness.

The correct responses for each of the conditions are totaled to give three individual subscores. The maximum score for accurate empathy is 46, for nonpossessive warmth 73, and for genuineness, 57. Adding all subscores together gives a total score for the overall

conditions.

Since the sample in the study related to all female teachers, the masculine gender of the third person pronouns appearing in the items was changed to female gender. The questionnaire, thus adapted and appearing as it was used in the study, is included in Appendix C.

Validity and Reliability.

As noted previously, the Relationship Questionnaire was adapted from the scales used for rating live observations or tape recordings of counseling sessions. Measures of the core conditions perceived by clients on the Relationship Questionnaire correlate between .53 and .56 with the ratings made from objective tape recordings (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967, p. 73).

More recent work (Hill and King, 1976) compared the perceptions of empathy among clients, counselors and judges on the empathy subscale of the Truax Relationship Questionnaire and Carkhuff's (1969) modified empathy rating scale. The mean scores, from the ANOVA's, on empathy differed very little and the pattern of correlations indicated substantial agreement among the three sources of judgement. The perceptions of each group were similar regardless of the instrument used.

On the other hand, McWhirter (1973), comparing the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory and ratings from trained judges found no significant relationships between the judges' ratings and clients' perceptions of empathy, warmth and genuineness. McWhirter accounts for the results on the basis that judges rating the audio tapes, were missing vital cues while clients based their ratings on the total interaction.

In an attempt to revise and validate the Truax Relationship

Questionnaire, Lin (1973) reported internal consistencies of the original questionnaire of .88 for accurate empathy, .91 for nonpossessive warmth, and .87 for genuineness. As well, Lin (1973) correlated his revision of the Truax instrument with the Barrett-Lennard instrument and reported correlations of .81 for empathy, .63 for warmth or regard, and .77 for genuineness or congruence.

Data Gathering Procedure.

Those students who had volunteered to participate in the study were asked to complete the POI near the beginning of the nursing program. The Inventory was used as a pretest to determine student level of self-actualization prior to the formation of a student-teacher relationship. Approximately three and a half months later at the conclusion of the first part of the nursing program, the POI was repeated as a post test to determine if the level of self actualizing had increased or decreased. At this time the instructor-student contact formally concluded and students were asked to complete the Relationship Questionnaire to obtain a measure of the levels of empathy, warmth, genuineness, and overall conditions they perceived to exist in the relationship with their instructor.

Attached to the end of the Relationship Questionnaire was a page entitled Relationship Rating and Description Question (Appendix D) which consisted of a written question asking the student to rate her relationship with her instructor by circling one of three choices; superior, average, or inferior. Written instructions then asked the student to indicate the basis for her rating selection and space was provided for the answer. Rosendahl (1973) employed the same rating selection and similar question,

in a taped format, to explore nursing students' perceptions of the teacher-learner relationship. Information from the Relationship Rating and Description Question will be examined in terms of the quality of communication in the relationship, the nature of the relationship, and the emotional tone of the relationship. Using this criterion, students' descriptions of their instructor relationship can be compared to the characteristics of the ideal student-teacher relationship as reported by Tyler (1964).

Participants in the study were assured of confidentiality in regard to all material collected. Examination numbers were used on all answer sheets. Prior to testing, students were instructed on each occasion to read the directions of the 'test' carefully and to "please answer the questions honestly". The importance of the latter instruction in regard to the POI has been emphasized by Warehime et al (1974). All testing was completed in a classroom at the School of Nursing.

Grades were collected from the School of Nursing and grade point averages tabulated. A grade point average of 76 or more, considered to be above average by the School, was the dividing point used to determine higher, as opposed to average and lower, grade point average.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The content of Chapter four consists of a restatement of each hypothesis and a presentation of results. Also included is a section describing ancillary findings.

To analyze each of the seven hypotheses, Welch t tests were used rather than ordinary t tests as the statistical method for determining significance of results. The regular t test for the significance of the difference between means assumes that the variances of the population from which the sample is drawn are equal (Ferguson, 1976, p. 166). "When the assumption of equality of variance is untenable, the ordinary t test should not be applied" (Ferguson, 1976, p. 168). The Welch t test handles the problem of unequal variance by making an adjustment in the number of degrees of freedom.

Hypothesis 1.

Students who show a gain in time competence perceive a higher level of each facilitative condition in the student-teacher relationship than students who show a gain in time incompetence.

Ten students did not show a gain in time competence or time incompetence. This group is discussed separately later in the chapter under the subtitle of Ancillary Findings.

Results of the analysis of Hypothesis 1 are shown in Tables 3, 4 and 5.

TABLE 3

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS FOR TIME COMPETENCE AND TIME INCOMPETENCE GAIN GROUPS

Group	Time Incompetence Mean	Time Incompetence SD	Time Competence Mean	Time Competence SD
Accurate Empathy	26.0869	9.2437	33.2308	7.3881
Nonpossessive Warmth	50.2174	14.4000	62.7692	6.6472
Genuineness	36.4348	9.9445	45.6538	4.7661
Overall Conditions	112.7391	32.6889	141.6538	17.9287

TABLE 4

VARIANCES AND F-RATIOS OF FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS FOR TIME COMPETENCE AND TIME INCOMPETENCE GAIN GROUPS

Group	Time Incompetence Var.	Time Incompetence DF	Time Competence Var.	Time Competence DF	F-Ratio
Accurate Empathy	85.447	22	54.585	25	1.56540
Nonpossessive Warmth	207.360	22	44.185	25	4.69299
Genuineness	98.893	22	22.715	25	4.35357
Overall Conditions	1068.565	22	321.438	25	3.32433

TABLE 5

WELCH T-TESTS ON THE FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS

FOR TIME COMPETENCE AND TIME INCOMPETENCE GAIN GROUPS

	Adj. DF	T-Ratio	Prob. (2 tail)
Accurate Empathy	43.79	-2.9626	0.00492*
Nonpossessive Warmth	30.86	-3.8345	0.00058**
Genuineness	31.51	-4.0532	0.00031**
Overall Conditions	34.19	-3.7701	0.00062**

* significance at the .01 level.
** significance at the .001 level.

A significant difference was found between the time competent gain group and the time incompetent gain group on each condition variable. Students showing a gain in time competence perceived a significantly higher level of accurate empathy, nonpossessive warmth, genuineness and overall conditions in their relationship with their teacher. Significance levels ranged from < .01 to < .001. Hypothesis 1 is therefore supported and not rejected.

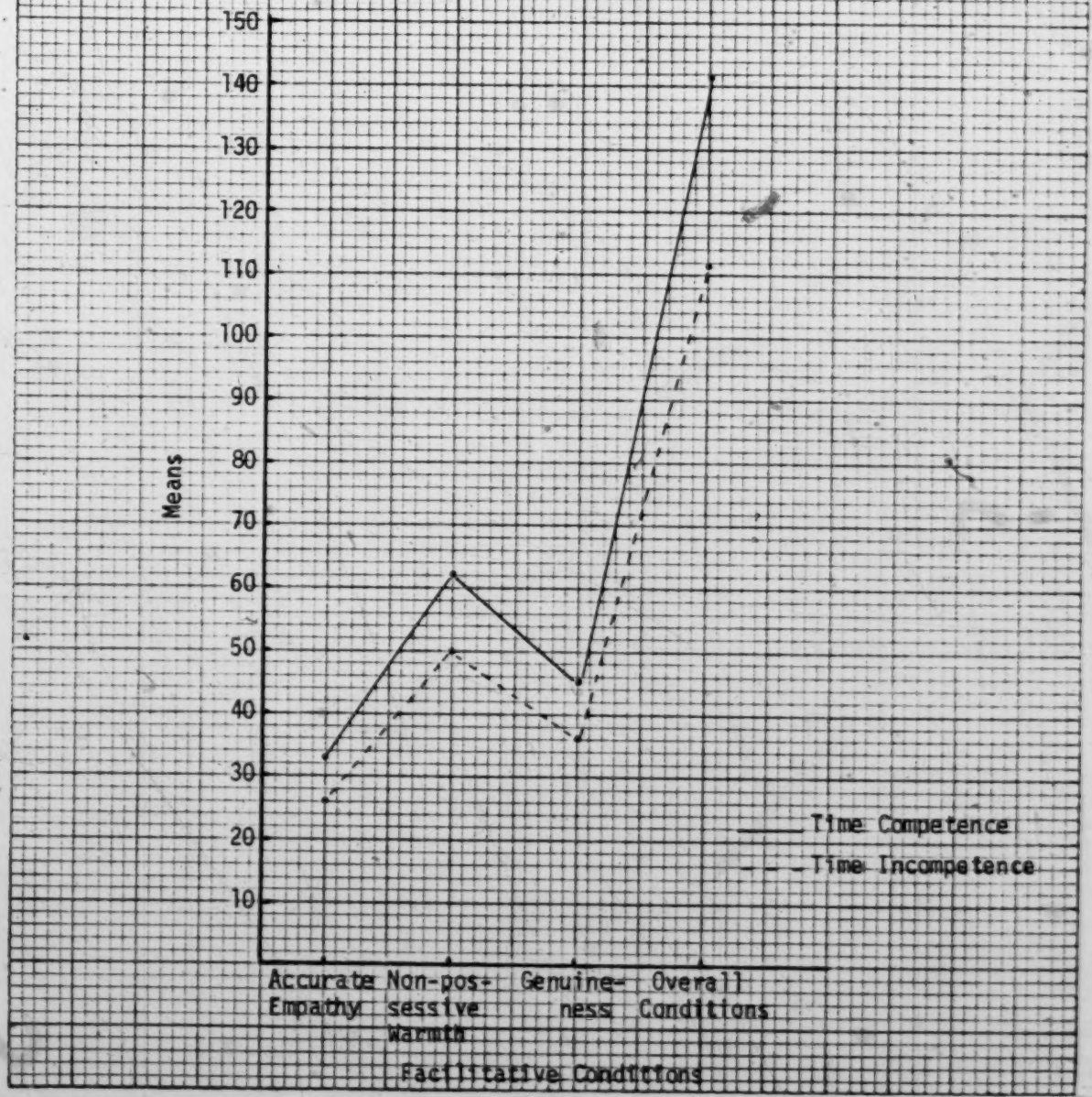
A graphic profile of the means of the facilitative conditions for time competence and time incompetence gain groups is presented in Figure 4.

Hypothesis 2.

Students who show a gain in inner directedness perceive a higher level of each facilitative condition in the student-teacher relationship than students who show a gain in other directedness.

FIGURE 4

PROFILE OF MEANS OF FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS FOR TIME COMPETENCE AND TIME INCOMPETENCE GAIN GROUPS



Four students did not show a gain in inner directedness or other directedness. This group is discussed separately later in this chapter under the subtitle of Ancillary Findings.

Tables 6, 7 and 8 present the results of the analysis of Hypothesis 2.

TABLE 6

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS FOR INNER DIRECTEDNESS AND OTHER DIRECTEDNESS GAIN GROUPS

Group	Other Directedness		Inner Directedness	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Accurate Empathy	25.6000	11.2555	31.8750	7.2720
Nonpossessive Warmth	49.2667	17.2273	60.1000	7.8080
Genuineness	36.4000	12.0167	43.2500	6.1467
Overall Conditions	111.2667	39.6835	135.2250	20.0851

TABLE 7

VARIANCES AND F-RATIOS OF FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS FOR INNER DIRECTEDNESS AND OTHER DIRECTEDNESS GAIN GROUPS

Group	Other Directedness Var.	DF	Inner Directedness Var.	DF	F-Ratio
Accurate Empathy	126.686	14	52.881	39	2.39566
Nonpossessive Warmth	296.781	14	60.965	39	4.86807
Genuineness	144.400	14	37.782	39	3.82192
Overall Conditions	1574.781	14	403.410	39	3.90367

TABLE 8

WELCH T-TESTS ON THE FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS FOR INNER DIRECTEDNESS AND OTHER DIRECTEDNESS GROUPS

	Adj. DF	T-Ratio	Prob. (2 tail)
Accurate Empathy	19.20	-2.0078	0.05895
Nonpossessive Warmth	16.52	-2.3468	0.03170*
Genuineness	17.22	-2.1068	0.05009
Overall Conditions	17.15	-2.2334	0.03912*

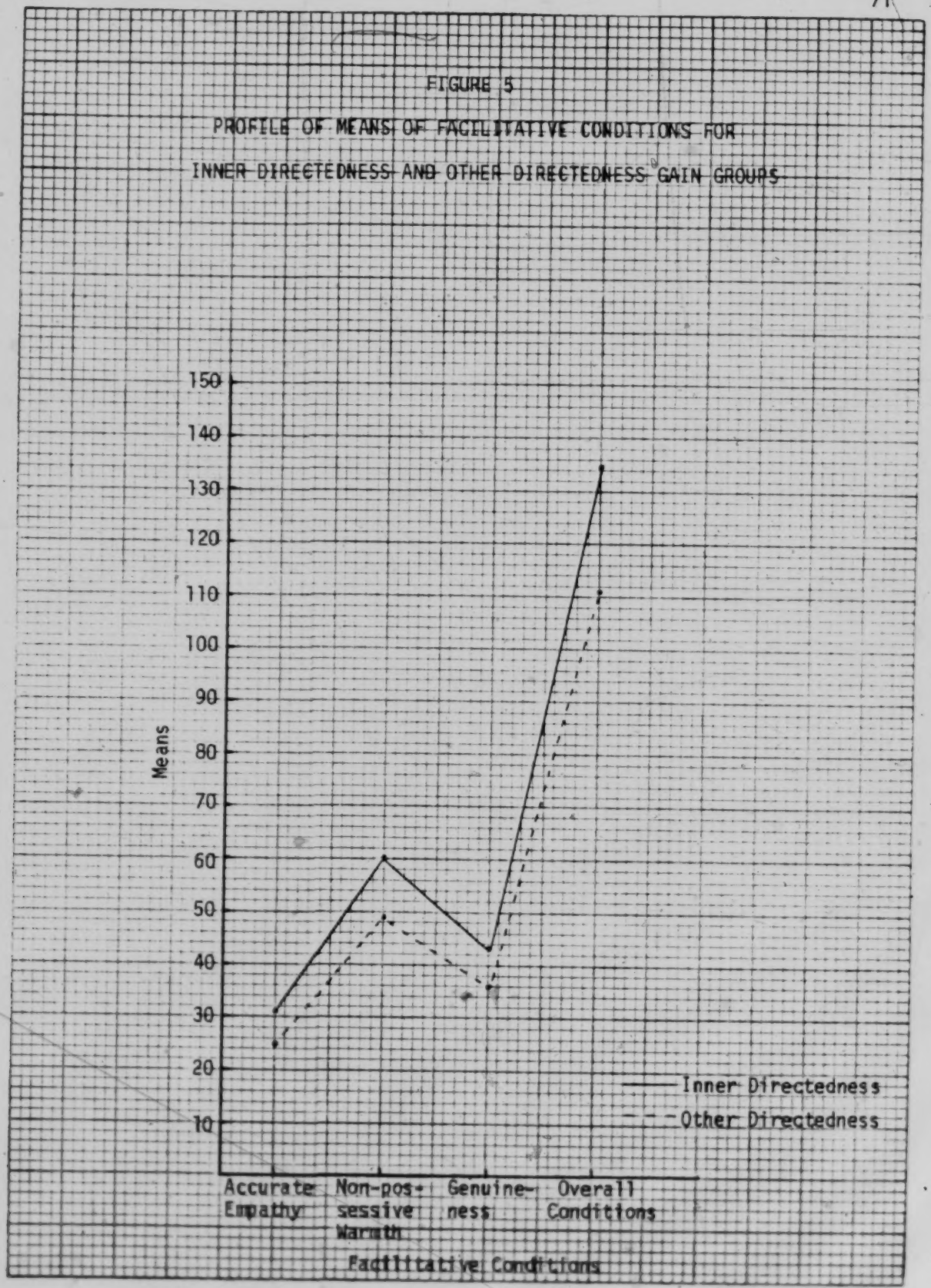
* significance at the .05 level.

A significant difference at the .05 level was found between the group showing a gain in inner directedness and the group showing a gain in other directedness on two of the conditions. Students showing a gain in inner directedness perceived a significantly higher level of nonpossessive warmth and overall conditions in their student-teacher relationship. Perception of accurate empathy and genuineness were approaching significance in the group showing a gain in inner directedness. However, because Hypothesis 2 was not fully supported at the established level of significance, it is rejected.

Means of the groups showing a gain in inner directedness and other directedness are graphically portrayed in Figure 5.

FIGURE 5

PROFILE OF MEANS OF FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS FOR INNER DIRECTEDNESS AND OTHER DIRECTEDNESS GAIN GROUPS



Hypothesis 3.

Students who show a gain in both time competence and inner directedness perceive a higher level of each facilitative condition in the student-teacher relationship than students who show a gain in both time incompetence and other directedness.

Statistical analysis of Hypothesis 3 is presented in Tables 9, 10 and 11.

TABLE 9

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS FOR COMBINED TIME COMPETENCE AND INNER DIRECTEDNESS GAIN GROUP AND COMBINED TIME INCOMPETENCE AND OTHER DIRECTEDNESS GAIN GROUP

Group	Time Incompetence and Other Directedness		Time Competence and Inner Directedness	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Accurate Empathy	20.7000	10.2204	32.9048	7.9744
Nonpossessive Warmth	41.9000	16.5425	62.4762	7.1807
Genuineness	31.0000	11.2546	45.1905	5.1732
Overall Conditions	93.0000	37.0951	140.5714	19.5387

TABLE 10

VARIANCES AND F-RATIOS OF FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS FOR COMBINED TIME COMPETENCE AND INNER DIRECTEDNESS GAIN GROUP AND COMBINED TIME INCOMPETENCE AND OTHER DIRECTEDNESS GAIN GROUP

Group	Time Incompetence and Other Directedness Var.	DF	Time Competence and Inner Directedness Var.	DF	F-Ratio
Accurate Empathy	104.456	9	63.591	20	1.64263
Nonpossessive Warmth	273.656	9	51.563	20	5.30726
Genuineness	126.667	9	26.762	20	4.73310
Overall Conditions	1376.049	9	381.759	20	3.60449

TABLE 11

WELCH T-TESTS ON THE FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS FOR COMBINED TIME COMPETENCE AND INNER DIRECTEDNESS GAIN GROUP AND COMBINED TIME INCOMPETENCE AND OTHER OTHER DIRECTEDNESS GAIN GROUP

	Adj. DF	T-Ratio	Prob. (2 tail)
Accurate Empathy	15.56	-3.3250	0.00442*
Nonpossessive Warmth	11.01	-3.7679	0.00311*
Genuineness	11.26	-3.8006	0.00282*
Overall Conditions	11.98	-3.7633	0.00271*

* significance at the .01 level.

Examining the results of the groups showing a gain in both time competence and inner directedness and a gain in both time incompetence and other directedness, a significant difference was found in regard to each facilitative condition. Students who showed a gain in both time competence and inner directedness perceived a higher level of accurate empathy, nonpossessive warmth, genuineness and overall conditions in their relationship with their teacher. The level of significance reached was < .01 for each condition variable. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 is not rejected.

Hypothesis 4.

Students who are more time competent achieve higher grade point average than students who are more time incompetent.

More time competency is represented by a raw score between 18 and 20, which, on the Time Competent Scale of the POI marks the actualizing range. On the other hand, raw scores of 17 and below fall in the non-actualizing range and represent relatively more time incompetency (Shostrom, 1972; 1973).

Results of the analysis of Hypothesis 4 are shown in Tables 12 and 13.

TABLE 12

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND VARIANCES OF GRADE POINT AVERAGE FOR TIME COMPETENT AND TIME INCOMPETENT GROUPS

	Grade Point Average			
	Mean	SD	Var.	DF
Time Competent Group	74.9130	5.2910	27.994	22
Time Incompetent Group	73.4167	6.2077	38.536	35

TABLE 13

WELCH T-TEST ON GRADE POINT AVERAGE FOR TIME COMPETENT AND TIME INCOMPETENT GROUPS

	Adj. DF	T-Ratio	Prob. (2 tail)
Grade Point Average	54.45	-0.9894	0.32686

There is no significant difference in grade point average between the time competent and time incompetent groups. Students who showed more time competence did not achieve higher grade point average than students who showed more time incompetence. The lack of statistical support makes Hypothesis 4 untenable.

Hypothesis 5.

Students who are more inner directed achieve a higher grade point average than students who are more other directed.

According to the Inner Directed Scale of the POI, a raw score between 87 and 101 falls in the actualizing range and represents relatively more inner directedness than other directedness. Raw scores of 86 and below fall in the non-actualizing range and represent relatively more other directedness.

Results of the analysis of Hypothesis 5 are shown in Tables 14 and 15.

TABLE 14

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND VARIANCES OF GRADE POINT AVERAGE FOR INNER DIRECTED AND OTHER DIRECTED GROUPS

	Grade Point Average			
	Mean	SD	Var.	DF
Inner Directed Group	74.7500	5.0452	25.454	27
Other Directed Group	73.3226	6.5289	42.627	30

TABLE 15

WELCH T-TEST ON GRADE POINT AVERAGE FOR INNER DIRECTED AND OTHER DIRECTED GROUPS

	Adj. DF	T-Ratio	Prob. (2 tail)
Grade Point Average	57.57	-0.9445	0.34887

No significant difference in grade point average was found between the inner directed and other directed groups. Students who showed more inner directedness did not achieve higher grade point average. Hypothesis 5 is therefore rejected.

Hypothesis 6.

Students who achieve higher grade point average perceive a higher level of each facilitative condition in their student-teacher relationship than students who have a lower grade point average.

A grade point average of 76 and above was the criterion used for determining higher as opposed to average and lower grade point average.

Results of the analysis of Hypothesis 6 are presented in Tables 16, 17, and 18.

TABLE 16

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS FOR HIGH GPA AND LOW GPA GROUPS

Group	High GPA		Low GPA	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Accurate Empathy	32.4615	6.5619	29.3636	10.2311
Nonpossessive Warmth	60.8461	6.4666	55.5454	14.5862
Genuineness	44.3846	5.3147	39.8788	9.9961
Overall Conditions	137.6923	17.1879	124.7879	33.9585

TABLE 17

VARIANCES AND F-RATIOS OF FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS FOR HIGH GPA AND LOW GPA GROUPS

Group	High GPA Var.	DF	Low GPA Var.	DF	F-Ratio
Accurate Empathy	43.059	25	104.676	32	2.43102
Nonpossessive Warmth	41.817	25	212.756	32	5.08772
Genuineness	28.246	25	99.922	32	3.53754
Overall Conditions	295.422	25	1153.178	32	3.90349

TABLE 18

WELCH T-TESTS ON THE FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS FOR HIGH AND LOW GPA GROUPS

	Adj. DF	T-Ratio	Prob. (2 tail)
Accurate Empathy	56.64	-1.4099	0.16405
Nonpossessive Warmth	47.22	-1.8676	0.06803
Genuineness	52.02	-2.2214	0.03070*
Overall Conditions	50.69	-1.8963	0.06362

* significance at the .05 level.

A significant difference of < .05 was found between the high grade point average group and the low grade point average group on only one of the facilitative conditions. Students who achieved a higher grade

point average perceived a significantly higher level of genuineness in the relationship with their teacher. In the group achieving higher grade point average, student perceptions of nonpossessive warmth and overall conditions in the student-teacher relationship were approaching significance. However, because Hypothesis 6 was largely not supported at the established level of significance, it is rejected.

Hypothesis 7.

Students who rate their student-teacher relationship as superior perceive a higher level of each facilitative condition than students who rate their student-teacher relationship as inferior.

The statistical analysis of Hypothesis 7 is presented in the following three tables.

TABLE 19

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS FOR SUPERIOR AND INFERIOR RATING GROUPS

Group	Superior Rating Means	SD	Inferior Rating Means	SD
Accurate Empathy	38.5500	3.2032	12.0000	2.0000
Nonpossessive Warmth	66.9500	3.0175	29.4000	9.1269
Genuineness	48.3500	1.4244	22.4000	5.4130
Overall Conditions	153.8500	6.3186	63.8000	14.9231

TABLE 20

VARIANCES AND F-RATIOS OF FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS

FOR SUPERIOR AND INFERIOR RATING GROUPS

Group	Superior Rating Var.	DF	Inferior Rating Var.	DF	F-Ratio
Accurate Empathy	10.261	19	4.000	4	2.56517
Nonpossessive Warmth	9.105	19	83.301	4	9.14864
Genuineness	2.029	19	29.300	4	14.44072
Overall Conditions	39.924	19	222.700	4	5.57806

TABLE 21

WELCH T-TESTS ON THE FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS

FOR SUPERIOR AND INFERIOR RATING GROUPS

	Adj. DF	T-Ratio	Prob. (2 tail)
Accurate Empathy	12.46	-23.1700	0.0*
Nonpossessive Warmth	4.33	-9.0765	0.00056*
Genuineness	4.21	-10.6282	0.00034*
Overall Conditions	4.55	-13.2004	0.00008*

* significance at the .001 level.

A significant difference was found between the superior rating group and the inferior rating group on each of the facilitative conditions. Students who rated their relationship with their teacher

as superior perceived a significantly higher level of accurate empathy, nonpossessive warmth, genuineness, and overall conditions. Significance levels reached were < .001. Hypothesis 7 is therefore not rejected.

Figure 6 is a graphic profile of the means of the facilitative conditions as they relate to each of the two rating groups.

Ancillary Findings.

Unchanged Pretest Scores.

Ten students did not show a gain in time competency or time incompetency as measured by the Time Competent Scale of the POI. In other words, the post test scores of this group were the same as their pretest scores. Examination of the scores of this group revealed considerable variety. Six scores fell in the actualizing range which represents a relatively high degree of time competence. Four scores were in the non-actualizing range which in turn represents relatively more time incompetence than time competence.

Additionally, four student scores remained unchanged on the Inner Directed Scale of the POI. These scores were also inconsistent. Three scores fell in the non-actualizing range which represents less inner directedness and more other directedness. The fourth score was in the actualizing range which indicates a relatively higher level of inner directedness.

Those scores which remained unchanged on both scales of the POI have been classified into actualizing and non-actualizing scores and are depicted in Table 22.

FIGURE 6

PROFILE OF MEANS OF FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS FOR SUPERIOR AND INFERIOR RATING GROUPS

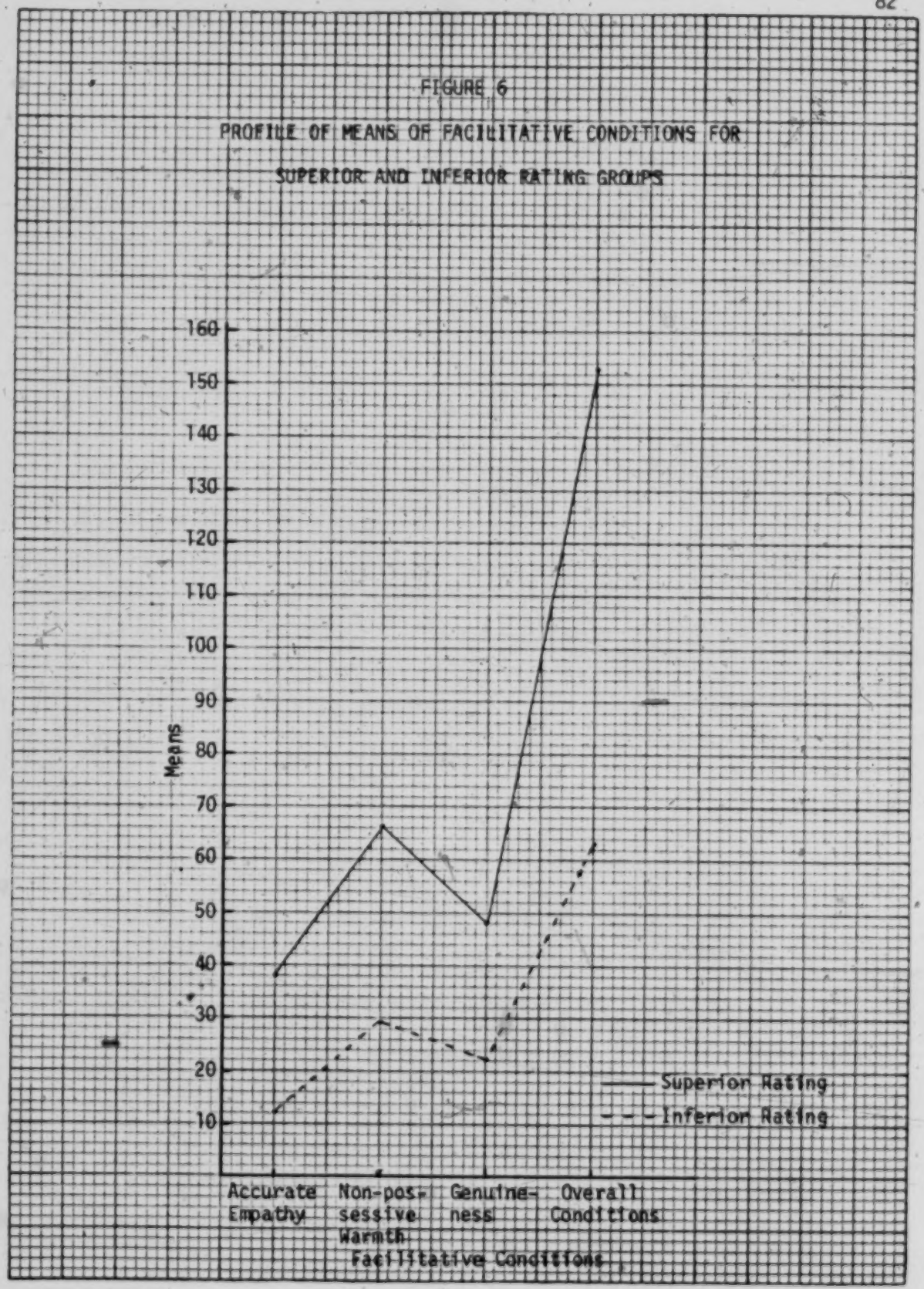


TABLE 22

CLASSIFICATION OF UNCHANGED SCORES ON THE TIME COMPETENT AND INNER DIRECTED SCALES OF THE POI INTO ACTUALIZING AND NON-ACTUALIZING SCORES

Scale	Number of Scores		
	Actualizing	Non-actualizing	Total Unchanged
Time Competent	6	4	10
Inner Directed	1	3	4

Due to the nonhomogeneous nature of the scores of the groups showing no change between pretest and post test a decision was made not to include them in the statistical analysis of Hypotheses 1 and 2.

Relationship Description.

Descriptions of the student-teacher relationship by students who rated the relationship either superior or inferior were tabulated and included in Appendix E. The tabulations were then sorted and examined according to the following criteria: the quality of the communication in the relationship; the nature of the relationship; and the emotional tone of the relationship.

The results, in relation to each rating, are presented below.

Superior Rating.

Students described the communication with their teacher in the following statements. "She was always ready to listen and to help; she tried to understand my point of view; she took time to listen to what I had to say; I could talk openly with her about my feelings;

she never put me down; she would say how she felt about various matters; she was helpful and understanding; I felt free to talk with her about any matter."

Students described the communication with their teacher in ways that indicate the communication was clearly effective.

The nature of the relationship with their teacher was described by students in the following way. "She was a compassionate person who looks at students as people; she was human and understood what it was like to be a student; she approached us at our level; she was as much a friend as a teacher; we could enjoy and respect each other; she made me feel like someone when she would visit outside of the ward; we could talk together person to person; I felt I was considered as an adult human being and that we could relate on the same level; we became friends and could talk about our feelings both on and off the ward; she made me feel as much an individual as a patient, staff member, or teacher."

Students describing the nature of the relationship indicate a peer quality through which they felt respect and equality.

The emotional tone of the relationship is described in the following student comments. "She was concerned for both patient and student; she was compassionate and understanding; she had a sense of humor; she was understanding of my ignorance and inexperience; I felt free to be myself; she seemed interested in all I said and did; she gave me encouragement and praise when deserved; she made us all feel comfortable and at ease with her; she took a personal interest in me; she showed she was a real person; she showed confidence in us; she conveyed a real caring attitude."

The emotional tone of the relationship as described by students indicates the presence of warmth, caring, and understanding on the part of the teacher.

Inferior Rating.

Describing the communication with their teacher, students made statements as follow. "She didn't seem to hear what I said and would repeat the same thing except with bigger words; she seemed to have her mind set on a goal and didn't seem to hear what I said; she did not give me an opportunity to think before speaking; she appeared to be one way but acted another which made me unwilling to ask her for anything."

In regard to the quality of communication, the negative comments and lack of description in positive terms implies that effective communication in the relationship was lacking.

Students described the nature of the relationship with the following comments. "She taught me but other than that obviously didn't want any more to do with me; she ignored us when we met outside of class or clinic; it seemed like it was just a job for her, not something she enjoyed; I never felt comfortable or at ease with her."

The nature of the relationship was described by students in terms which did not denote equality or reciprocity.

The emotional tone of the relationship was described by students in the following manner. "I felt there was a wall around her emotions; we seemed to grate on each other's nerves; I would rather she had told me when she was angry; I didn't like her attitude; I could tell she was annoyed with me but she never told me so until the end."

Students describing the emotional tone of the relationship implied

they felt the relationship lacked warmth, caring or understanding. Their descriptions were void in regard to these terms or related phrases.

Comparison of Means.

Means were determined for the study sample from the pretest scores on the POI Time Competent and Inner Directed Scales. The means were then compared with those from two samples of sophmore nursing students in the American midwest. These latter groups had completed the first year of college courses which were a prerequisite to entering the nursing program.

Table 23 presents a comparison of means from these groups in regard to the two scales of the POI.

TABLE 23

COMPARISON OF MEANS ON THE TIME COMPETENT AND INNER DIRECTED SCALES OF THE POI

Group	N	Time Competent Mean	Inner Directed Mean
Sample Nursing Students	59	16.49	80.22
Sophmore Nursing Students*	109	16.13	80.05
Sophmore Nursing Students**	64	16.90	77.40

* Reported by Gunter, 1969

** Reported by Ilardi and May, 1968.

The sophmore nursing student sample selected by Ilardi and May (1968) shows the highest Time Competent mean of the three groups.

Within the same sample occurs the lowest Inner Directed mean of the three groups. Comparison of the POI means for the study sample and the sample chosen by Gunter (1969) reveals much similarity.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The content of chapter five focuses on a discussion of the conclusions and implications of the study and includes as well suggestions for furthur research in the area.

Conclusions.

From the analysis of the data, the following conclusions appear warranted.

Nursing students who demonstrated increases toward self-actualization perceived significantly more empathy, nonpossessive warmth, and genuineness in their student-teacher relationship. This finding lends support to the major hypothesis presented by Rogers which states that human potential is released when these core conditions are present in an interpersonal relationship (Rogers, 1961; 1964). The finding is also supportive of the thesis put forth by Truax and Carkhuff (1967) and Carkhuff and Berenson (1977) that psychological health is promoted when these facilitative conditions are perceived to exist within a helping relationship. As well, the results join an ever growing body of evidence supporting Shostrom's (1964) premise that the concept of psychological health, in terms of the dimensions of time competence and inner directedness, can be measured. The findings of this study are more supportive of the above major tenets than the conclusions reported by Rosendahl (1973). In the latter study a significant positive relationship was found between the perception of facilitative conditions and the development of inner directedness. However, no significant correlation was found in regard to time competence and perception of facilitative conditions.

Nursing students who rated their relationship with their teacher as superior perceived significantly more empathy, nonpossessive warmth, and genuineness in the relationship. This finding corresponds with Tyler's (1964) research results which indicate that the ideal student-teacher relationship shares very similar characteristics to the ideal therapeutic relationship, in which there are high levels of these conditions. In regard to the ideal student-teacher relationship the results of her study led Tyler (1964) to conclude that it involves "good or excellent communication in a peer relation which tends to be emotionally close. The nature of the relationship which is less ideal is that involving no communication, with the teacher feeling very superior and drawing away or rejecting the student" (p. 116). Students participating in the present study who deemed their relationship with their teacher as superior described the relationship as one involving; openness and warmth in communication, peer transactions, and emotional closeness. On the other hand, students reporting an inferior, hence less ideal, relationship described closed communication patterns, a lack of peer interaction, and an unfeeling, uncaring attitude on the part of the teacher. The descriptions of students in this study correspond closely with Tyler's conclusions in regard to the ideal and less ideal student-teacher relationship.

Nursing students who attained a higher grade point average, while not perceiving more empathy or warmth, did perceive significantly more genuineness in the relationship with their teacher. This finding is interesting in light of the suggestion made by Rogers (1962) that genuineness may be the most crucial quality in a relationship. In a

context which is not genuine, empathy and warmth lose their meaning, and, according to Truax and Carkhuff (1967) a potentially destructive relationship can result. Possibly the students in this study who perceived genuineness in their relationship with their teacher were able to enter more fully and more comfortably into the relationship and hence responded in ways which may have been reflected in higher grade achievement. Conceivably, students who perceive a teacher as consistently real and congruent could direct their physical, emotional, and mental energy toward a mastery of content knowledge rather than in attempts to deal with a relationship that was phony, inconsistent, and untrustworthy.

Nursing students who were more self-actualizing did not achieve a higher grade point average. These results may suggest that students in this study who were self-actualizing did not view achieving good grades as self-actualizing activity. It is possible that these students, who rely more on an inner support and evaluative system and who focus on the present and not solely on the future, did not find 'grade getting' a self-actualizing experience. Though the results are somewhat in contradiction to the research evidence they are difficult to compare because ability was an unknown factor in the present study. As pointed out by LeMay (1969), intellectual ability may be an important factor in examining self-actualization and grade achievement.

An initial intent of this study was to investigate the difference between student self-actualizing levels and achievement in terms of nursing practice grade. Though Green (1967) found no significant results in regard to either of the two major dimensions of self-

actualizing and nursing practice grade, the literature (Maslow, 1962; Shostrom, 1976) suggests that students who are more self-actualizing are better equipped to meet the needs of others. With respect to the present study, nursing practice evaluations of the students were based on a Pass/Fail criterion in accord with the policy of this particular School of Nursing. All of the students in the sample (and in the class) received a Pass grade in nursing practice. Since there were no failures and since the grading system did not include degrees of achievement (such as stanines) in regard to nursing practice, the original intent became unworkable.

In examining the sample participating in this study, a comparison of POI pretest means reveals much similarity to the pretest means of a sophmore nursing student sample selected by Gunter (1969). The sample chosen by Gunter consisted of 109 students and represented 84 percent of a sophmore class beginning nursing. The sample volunteering for the present study, 59 in number, represented 56 percent of a first year diploma nursing class. It appears that a certain uniformity may exist in level of self-actualization of beginning nursing students whether enrolled in a baccalaureate program in the American midwest or a diploma program in Western Canada.

Implications.

An examination of the results of the study may suggest several implications for nursing education in the areas of faculty selection and curriculum development.

Faculty Selection.

Psychological health is considered by nursing leaders to be

important to effective nursing practice. The results of this study suggest that students develop psychologically in an atmosphere of empathy, warmth, and genuineness. It would seem, then, that nursing faculty should be selected and maintained on the basis of these attributes in addition to the equally important cognitive attributes. If the psychological growth of students is genuinely of as much concern to nursing educators as student cognitive development then the relationship skills of prospective faculty should be considered as carefully as the intellectual abilities.

Recognizing the power of modeling in learning, it would seem important that nursing educators select and maintain faculty who will model consistently the elements of the helping relationship to impressionable student nurses. These elements modeled by faculty in the student-teacher relationship may in turn be modeled by students in the nurse-patient relationship. Again, these elements of empathy, nonpossessive warmth, and genuineness are claimed by nursing leaders, and also by a more aware health consumer, to be crucial to effective, total patient care.

Curriculum Development.

The results of this study imply that students who perceive empathy, nonpossessive warmth, and genuineness in their student-teacher relationship grow and develop into more actualizing individuals. Actualizing individuals, according to Maslow (1962) are more fully human and are able to use their human potential to assist others to live more fulfilling lives. It would seem reasonable, then, to plan nursing curriculums with a focus on the whole psychological development of the

student rather than choosing to focus on a specific aspect of that development, primarily the intellectual. Teaching strategies, course objectives, and grading procedures could reflect an emphasis that includes intellectual development but which goes beyond that single dimension. Students can be consistently guided in a number of ways, as a result of curriculum planning, to become more inner directed and more time competent; to become not only more intellectually responsible but emotionally responsible human beings as well.

In addition, nursing programs which clearly outline the goals described are in a better position to attract the kind of students they desire. Prospective students, in turn, can then decide and commit themselves to a learning endeavor which involves experience and skill building beyond the cognitive and psychomotor domains.

Another implication which seems to be manifested in the data and related to curriculum planning is the matter of student needs. Students in this study who perceived high levels of empathy, nonpossessive warmth, and genuineness from their teachers indicated that their emotional and intellectual needs were being met. A mutual sharing of knowledge and feelings appeared important to them in their development as nurses. Awareness of these needs, on the part of nursing educators, means specific planning and implementation of ways to help students meet their needs for personal development. The data implies that nursing educators have a responsibility to students beyond being informed and knowledgeable in the content area. They have a responsibility to be genuinely open and caring in their relationships with students.

Suggestions for Further Research.

The following suggestions are made in regard to furthur study and research in the area of self-actualization and the perception of facilitative conditions in the learning environment.

The first three points relate to changes and possible improvements in the present study, while the remaining points outline related areas that may prove useful to explore.

1. The present study could be repeated to determine if the same results occur with a sample consisting of an entire class of nursing students. A significant question concerns that part of the class that did not participate in the study.
2. An investigation of grade achievement and level of self-actualization could be more useful with the inclusion of the intellectual ability or aptitude variable. For example, relationships between actualizing level and grade point average could be explored in terms of ability groupings.
3. An exploration of the clinical practice achievement of nursing students in relation to their psychological growth (represented by movement toward actualization) could yield information which may have implications for nursing education objectives.
4. Teacher level of self-actualizing could be studied to determine if relationships or differences exist between teacher actualizing level and student perception of empathy, warmth, and genuineness. Teacher rating, by students, and student description of the relationship could be incorporated in the study.

5. There is some evidence to suggest that self-disclosure may be a factor related to psychological health and to helper effectiveness (Jourard, 1971; Macklin and Rossiter, 1976). In addition to the perception of empathy, warmth, and genuineness student perception of teacher self-disclosure may be a factor promoting the self-actualizing process in students.
6. Studies in Nursing are needed to furthur determine what variables in the student-teacher relationship are related to the development, by the student, of an effective nurse-patient relationship.

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APPENDIX A

PROFILE SHEET FOR THE PERSONAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY

NAME _____ DATE TESTED _____

AGE _____ SEX _____

OCCUPATION _____

I T_I - T_C (Time) Ratio:
Self-Actualizing Average: T_I: T_C = 1:3
Your Ratio: T_I: T_C = 1: __

1									
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

II O - I (Support) Ratio:
Self-Actualizing Average: O:I = 1:3
Your Ratio: O:I = 1: __

1									
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

		VALUING		FEELING		SELF-PERCEPTION		SYNERGISTIC AWARENESS		INTERPERSONAL SENSITIVITY	
TIME COMPETENT Lives in the present	INNER-DIRECTED Independent, self-supportive	SELF-ACTUALIZING VALUE Holds values of self-actualizing people	EXISTENTIALITY Flexible in application of values	FEELING REACTIVITY Sensitive to own needs and feelings	SPONTANEITY Freely expresses feelings behaviorally	SELF REGARD Has high self-worth	SELF-ACCEPTANCE Accepting of self in spite of weaknesses	NATURE OF MAN, CONSTRUCTIVE Sees man as essentially good	SYNERGY Sees opposites of life as meaningfully related	ACCEPTANCE OF AGGRESSION Accepts feelings of anger or aggression	CAPACITY FOR INTIMATE CONTACT Has warm interpersonal relationships
T_C	I	SAV	Ex	Fr	S	Sr	Sa	Nc	Sy	A	C
					ADULT NORMS						
80	123									25	
	120										
	115										
70	110	25	30	30		15	25	15	9		25
	105				15					20	
60	100						20				
30	95		25						8		
	90										20
50	85	20		15					7		
	80		30		10		15			15	
	75					10					15
40	70		15					10	6		
	65	15		10			10		5		
30	60				5					10	10
	55		10			5			4		
	50										
20	45	10	5	5			5		3		5
TIME INCOMPETENT Lives in the past or future	OTHER DIRECTED Dependent, seeks support of others' views	Rejects values of self-actualizing people	Rigid in application of values	Insensitive to own needs and feelings	Fearful of expressing feelings behaviorally	Has low self-worth	Unable to accept self with weaknesses	Sees man as essentially evil	Sees opposites of life as antagonistic	Denies feelings of anger or aggression	Has difficulty with warm interpersonal relations

Standard Scores

Standard Scores

APPENDIX B

RELATIONSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (AND SCORING KEY)[1]

People feel differently about some people than they do about others. There are a number of statements below that describe a variety of ways that one person may feel about another person, or ways that one person may act toward another person. Consider each statement carefully and decide whether it is true or false when applied to your present relationship with your instructor. If the statement seems to be mostly true, then mark it true; if it is mostly not true, then mark it false.

	Accurate Empathy	Nonpossessive Warmth	Genuineness	Overall Therapeutic relationship	Intensity & Intimacy of interpersonal contact.	Concreteness
1. He seems to hold things back rather than tell me what he really thinks.			f	f	f	f
2. He understands my words but does not know I feel.	f			f		f
3. He understands me.	t			t		
4. He understands exactly how I see things.	t			t	t	t
5. He is often disappointed in me.		f	t	f.		
6. He seems to like me no matter what I say to him.		t	t	t	t	
7. He is impatient with me.		f	t	f		
8. He may understand me but he does not know how I feel.	f			f		f
9. Sometimes he seems interested in me while other times he does not seem to care about me.		f		f	f	
10. He often misunderstands what I am trying to say.	f			f		f
11. He almost always seems very concerned about me.		t		t	t	
12. Sometimes I feel that what he says to me is very different from the way he really feels.			f	f		
13. He is a person you can really trust.	t		t	t		
14. Sometimes he will argue with me just to phove he is right.	f		f	f	f	
15. Sometimes he seems to be uncomfortable with me, but we go on and pay no attention to it.		f	f	f		f
16. Some things I say seem to upset him.		f	t	f		
17. He can read me like a book.	t			t		t
18. He usually is not very interested in what I have to say.		f		f	f	
19. He feels indifferent about me.		f		f	f	
20. He acts too professional.			f	f	f	

[1] Scale developed by Charles B. Truax during 1963. It is an attempt to translate the previous scales used for ratings objective tape recordings into a questionnaire form that can be answered by the client. In this respect it follows closely the thinking and earlier work of Barrett-Lennard in his development of the relationship inventory.

	Accurate Empathy	Non possessive Warmth	Genuineness	Overall Therapeutic Relationship	Intensity & Intimacy of Interpersonal Contact	Concreteness
21. I am just another student to him.			f	f	f	
22. I feel that I can trust him to be honest with me.	f	t f	t	t f	f	t f
23. He ignores some of my feelings.		t		t		
24. He likes to see me.	t			t		t
25. He knows more about me than I do about myself.	t			t		t
26. Sometimes he is so much "with me" in my feelings, that I am not at all distracted by his presence.	t	t	t	t	t	t
27. I can usually count on him to tell me what he really thinks or feels.			t	t		t
28. He appreciates me.		t		t	t	
29. He sure makes me think hard about myself.				t		t
30. I feel that he is being genuine with me.			t	t		
31. Even when I cannot say quite what I mean, he knows how I feel.	t			t	t	
32. He usually helps me to know how I am feeling by putting my feelings into words for me.	t			t	t	t
33. He seems like a very cold person.		f	f	f	f	
34. He must understand me, but I often think he is wrong.	f			f		f
35. I feel that he really thinks I am worthwhile.		t		t	t	
36. Even if I were to criticize him, he would still like me.		t	t	t	t	
37. He likes me better when I agree with him.		f	t	f		
38. He seems to follow almost every feeling I have while I am with him.	t			t	t	t
39. He usually uses just the right words when he tries to understand how I am feeling.	t			t		t
40. If it were not for him I would probably never be forced to think about some of the things that trouble me.				t		t
41. He pretends that he likes me more than he really does.			f	f		
42. He really listens to everything I say.		t		t	t	
43. Sometimes he seems to be putting up a professional front.			f	f	f	
44. Sometimes he is so much "with me" that with only the slightest hint he is able to accurately sense some of my deepest feelings.	t	t		t	t	t
45. I feel safer with him than I do with almost any other person.		t	t	t		

	Accurate Empathy	Nonpossessive Warmth	Genuineness	Overall Therapeutic Relationship	Intensity & Intimacy of Interpersonal Contact	Concreteness
46. His voice usually sounds very serious.				t	t	
47. I often cannot understand what he is trying to tell me.	f			f		f
48. Sometimes he sort of "pulls bakc" and examines me.			f	f	f	
49. I am afraid of him.		f		f		
50. He seems to pressure me to talk about things that are important to me.				t		t
51. Whatever he says usually fits right in with what I am feeling.	t			t	t	t
52. He sometimes seems more interested in what he himself says than in what I say.	f	f	t	f	f	f
53. He tells me things that he does not mean.			f	f		
54. He often does not seem to be genuinely himself.			f	f		
55. He is a very sincere person.			t	t		
56. With him I feel more free to really be myself than with almost anyone else I know.		t		t		
57. He sometimes pretends to understand me, when he really does not.	f		f	f		f
58. He usually knows exactly what I mean, sometimes even before I finish saying it.	t			t	t	t
59. He accepts me the way I am even though he wants me to be better.		t	t	t		t
60. Whether I am talking about "good" or "bad" feelings seems to make no real difference in the way he feels toward me.		t		t		
61. In many of our talks I feel that he pushes me to talk about things that are upsetting.				t		t
62. He often leads me into talking about some of my deepest feelings.	t			t	t	t
63. He usually makes me work hard at knowing myself.				t	t	t
64. Sometimes I feel like going to sleep while I am talking with him.				f	f	
65. He is curious about what makes me act like I do, but he is not really interested in me.		f		f	f	
66. He sometimes completely understands me so that he knows what I am feeling even when I am hiding my feelings.	t			t	t	
67. I sometimes feel safe enough with him to really say how I feel.		t	t	t		
68. I feel I can trust him more than anyone else I know.		t	t	t		

	Accurate Empathy	Nonpossessive Warmth	Genuineness	Overall Therapeutic Relationship	Intensity & Intimacy of Interpersonal Contact	Concreteness
69. Whatever I talk about is okay with him.		t		t		
70. He helps me know myself better by sometimes pointing to feelings within me that I had been unaware of.	t			t	t	t
71. He seems like a real person, instead of just a teacher.			t	t		
72. I can learn a lot about myself from talking with him.	t			t		t
73. In spite of all he knows about me, he seems to trust my feelings about what is right and wrong for me.		t		t	t	
74. Sometimes he is upset when I see him but he tries to hide it.			f	f		
75. He would never knowingly hurt me.		t		t		
76. He is a phony.			f	f		
77. He is the kind of person who might lie to me if he thought it would help me.		f	f	f		
78. When he sees me he seems to be "just doing a job".	f	f	f	f	f	
79. In spite of the bad things that he knows about me, he seems to still like me.		t	t			
80. I sometimes get the feeling that for him the most important thing is that I should really like him.		f		f	f	f
81. There is something about the way he reacts to what I tell him that makes me uncertain whether he can keep my confidences to himself.			f	f		
82. He gives me so much advice I sometimes think he is trying to live my life for me.		f		f		
83. He never knows when to stop talking about something which is not very meaningful to me.	f	f		f	f	
84. He sometimes cuts me off abruptly just when I am leading up to something very important to me.	f	f		f	f	
85. He frequently acts so restless that I get the feeling he can hardly wait for the day to end.		f		f	f	
86. There are lots of things I could tell him, but I am not sure how he would react to them, so I keep them to myself.	f	f		f		
87. He constantly reminds me that we are friends though I have a feeling that he drags this into the conversation.	f	f		f		
88. He sometimes tries to make a joke out of something I feel really upset about.	f	f				f
89. He is sometimes so rude I only accept it because he is supposed to be helping me.		f		f	f	

	Accurate Empathy	Non possessive Warmth	Genuineness	Overall Therapeutic Relationship	Intensity & Intimacy of Interpersonal Contact	Concreteness
90. Sometimes he seems to be playing "cat and mouse" with me.		f	f	f	f	
91. He often points out what a lot of help he is giving me even though it does not feel like it to me.	f	f		f	f	
92. It is hard to feel comfortable with him because he sometimes seems to be trying out some new theory on me.		f	f	f		
93. He's got a job to do and does it. That's the only reason he does not tell me off.		f	f	f		
94. If I had a chance to study under a different instructor, I would.	f			f		f
95. He is always relaxed, I don't think anything could get him excited.			f	f	f	
96. I don't think he has ever smiled.		f			f	
97. He is always the same.		f		t		
98. I would like to be like him.		t		t		
99. He makes me feel like a guinea pig or some kind of animal.			f	f		
100. He uses the same words over and over again till I'm bored.						
101. Usually I can lie to him and he never knows the difference.	f			f		
102. He may like me, but he does not like the things I talk about.		f		f		
103. I don't think he really cares if I live or die.		f	f	f	f	
104. He does not like me as a person, but continues to see me as a student anyway.		f	f		f	
105. I think he is dumb.	f			f		
106. He never says anything that makes him sound like a real person.			f	f	f	f
107. He is all right, but I really don't trust him.			f	f		
108. If I make mistakes or miss a class, he really gives me trouble about it.		f		f		
109. He lets me talk about anything.		t		t		
110. He probably laughs about the things that I have said to him.	f		f	f		
111. I don't think he knows what is the matter with me.	f			f		f
112. He sometimes looks as worried as I feel.			t	t		
113. He is really a cold fish.		f	f	f	f	
114. There are times when I don't have to speak, he knows how I feel.	t			t		
115. If I am happy or if I am sad, it makes no difference, he is always the same.		t		t		

	Accurate Empathy	Nonpossessive Warmth	Genuineness	Overall Therapeutic Relationship	Intensity & Intimacy of Interpersonal Contact	Concreteness
116. He really wants to understand me, I can tell by the way he acts.				t	t	
117. He knows what it feels like to be ill.	t			t		
118. He must think he is God, the way he talks about things.		f	f	f		
119. He really wants to understand me, I can tell by the way he asks questions.				t	t	
120. He must think that he is God, the way he treats me.		f		f		
121. He rarely makes me talk about anything that would be uncomfortable.				f		f
122. He interrupts me whenever I am talking about something that really means a lot to me.	f			f		
123. When I'm talking about things that mean a great deal to me, he acts like they don't mean a thing.		f		f		
124. I can tell by his expressions sometimes that he says things that he does not mean.			f	f		
125. He really wants me to act a certain way, and says so.						
126. There are a lot of things that I would like to talk about, but he won't let me.		f		f		
127. He really likes me and shows it.		t	t	t	t	
128. I think he could like someone, but I don't think he could love anybody.		f		f		
129. There are times when he is silent for long periods and then says things that don't have much to do with what we have been talking about.	f	f		f	f	f
130. When he is wrong he doesn't try to hide it.			t	t		
131. He acts like he knows it all.		f		f		
132. If he had his way, he wouldn't walk across the street to see me.		f	f	f		
133. Often he makes me feel stupid the way he uses strange or big wordsk.	f		f	f		
134. He must think life is easy the way he talks about my problems.	f					
135. You can nevel tell how he feels about things.			f	f		f
136. He treats me like a person.		t		t	t	
137. He seems to be bored by a good deal of what I talk about.		f			f	
138. He will talk to me, but otherwise he seems pretty far away from me.	f	f		f	f	f
139. Even though he pays attention to me, he seems to be just another person to talk with, an outsider.	f	f		f	f	f
140. His concern about me is very obvious.			t	t	t	
141. I get the feeling that he is all wrapped up in what I tell him about myself.				t	t	

APPENDIX C

Examination Number _____

RELATIONSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

People feel differently about some people than they do about others. There are a number of statements below that describe a variety of ways that one person may feel about another person, or ways that one person may act toward another person. Consider each statement carefully and decide whether it is true or false when applied to your present relationship with your clinical instructor. If the statement seems to be mostly true, then mark A on the answer sheet; if it is mostly not true, then mark B on the answer sheet.

A = True B = False

1. She seems to hold things back, rather than tell me what she really thinks.
2. She understands my words but does not know how I feel.
3. She understands me.
4. She understands exactly how I see things.
5. She is often disappointed in me.
6. She seems to like me no matter what I say to her.
7. She is impatient with me.
8. She may understand me but she does not know how I feel.
9. Sometimes she seems interested in me while other times she doesn't seem to care about me.
10. She often misunderstands what I am trying to say.
11. She almost always seems very concerned about me.
12. Sometimes I feel that what she says to me is very different from the way she really feels.
13. She is a person you can really trust.
14. Sometimes she will argue with me just to prove she is right.
15. Sometimes she seems to be uncomfortable with me, but we go on and pay no attention to it.
16. Some things I say seem to upset her.
17. She can read me like a book.

18. She usually is not very interested in what I have to say.

19. She feels indifferent about me.

20. She acts too professional.

21. I am just another student to her.

22. I feel that I can trust her to be honest with me.

23. She ignores some of my feelings.

24. She likes to see me.

25. She knows more about me than I do about myself.

26. Sometimes she is so much "with me", in my feelings, that I am not at all distracted by her presence.

27. I can usually count on her to tell me what she really thinks or feels.

28. She appreciates me.

29. I feel that she is being genuine with me.

30. Even when I cannot say quite what I mean, she knows how I feel.

31. She usually helps me to know how I am feeling by putting my feelings into words for me.

32. She seems like a very cold person.

33. She must understand me, but I often think she is wrong.

34. I feel that she really thinks I am worthwhile.

35. Even if I were to criticize her, she would still like me.

36. She likes me better when I agree with her.

37. She seems to follow almost every feeling I have while I am with her.

38. She usually uses just the right words when she tries to understand how I am feeling.

39. She pretends that she likes me more than she really does.

40. She really listens to everything I say.

41. Sometimes she seems to be putting up a professional front.

42. Sometimes she is so much "with me" that with only the slightest hint she is able to accurately sense some of my deepest feelings.

43. I feel safer with her than I do with almost any other person.

44. I often cannot understand what she is trying to tell me.

45. Sometimes she sort of "pulls back" and examines me.

46. I am afraid of her.

47. Whatever she says usually fits right in with what I am feeling.

48. She sometimes seems more interested in what she herself says than in what I say.

49. She tells me things that she does not mean.

50. She often does not seem to be genuinely herself.

51. She is a very sincere person.

52. With her I feel more free to really be myself than with almost anyone else I know.

53. She sometimes pretends to understand me, when she really does not.

54. She usually knows exactly what I mean, sometimes even before I finish saying it.

55. She accepts me the way I am even though she wants me to be better.

56. Whether I am talking about "good" or "bad" feelings seems to make no difference in the way she feels toward me.

57. She often leads me into talking about some of my deepest feelings.

58. She is curious about what makes me act like I do, but she is not really interested in me.

59. She sometimes completely understands me so that she knows what I am feeling even when I am hiding my feelings.

60. I sometimes feel safe enough with her to really say how I feel.

61. I feel I can trust her more than anyone else I know.

62. Whatever I talk about is okay with her.

63. She helps me know myself better by sometimes pointing to feelings within me that I had been unaware of.

64. She seems like a real person, instead of just a teacher.

65. I can learn alot about myself from talking with her.

66. In spite of all she knows about me, she seems to trust my feelings about what is right and wrong for me.

67. Sometimes she is upset when I see her but she tries to hide it.

68. She would never knowingly hurt me.

69. She is a phoney.

70. She is the kind of person who might lie to me if she thought it would help me.

71. When she sees me she seems to be "just doing a job".

72. In spite of the bad things that she knows about me, she still seems to like me.

73. I sometimes get the feeling that for her the most important thing is that I should really like her.

74. There is something about the way she reacts to what I tell her that makes me uncertain whether she can keep my confidence to herself.

75. She gives me so much advice I sometimes think she is trying to live my life for me.

76. She never knows when to stop talking about something which is not very meaningful to me.

77. She sometimes cuts me off abruptly just when I am leading up to something important to me.

78. She frequently acts so restless that I get the feeling she can hardly wait for the day to end.

79. There are lots of things I could tell her, but I am not sure how she would react to them.

80. She constantly reminds me that we are friends though I have a feeling that she drags this into the conversation.

81. She sometimes tries to make a joke out of something I feel really upset about.

82. She is sometimes so rude I only accept it because she is supposed to be helping me.

83. Sometimes she seems to be playing "cat and mouse" with me.

84. She often points out what a lot of help she is giving me even though it doesn't feel like it to me.

85. It is hard to feel comfortable with her because she sometimes seems to be trying out some new theory on me.

86. She's got a job to do and does it. That's the only reason she doesn't tell me off.

87. If I had a chance to study under a different instructor, I would.

88. She is always relaxed, I don't think anything could get her excited.

89. I don't think she has ever smiled.

90. She is always the same.

91. I would like to be like her.

92. She makes me feel like a guinea pig or some kind of animal.

93. She uses the same words over and over again, till I'm bored.

94. Usually I can lie to her and she never knows the difference.

95. She may like me, but she doesn't like the things I talk about.

96. I don't think she really cares if I live or die.

97. She doesn't like me as a person, but continues to see me as a student anyway.

98. I think she is dumb.

99. She never says anything that makes her sound like a real person.

100. She is all right, but I really don't trust her.

101. If I make mistakes or miss a class, she really gives me trouble about it.

102. She lets me talk about anything.

103. She probably laughs about the things that I have said to her.

104. I don't think she knows what is the matter with me.

105. She sometimes looks as worried as I feel.

106. She is really a cold fish.

107. There are times when I don't have to speak; she knows how I feel.

108. If I am happy or if I am sad, it makes no difference, she is always the same.

109. She knows what it is like to be ill.

110. She must think she is God, the way she talks about things.

111. She must think she is God, the way she treats me.

112. She interrupts me whenever I am talking about something that really means a lot to me.

113. When I'm talking about things that mean a great deal to me, she acts like they don't mean a thing.

114. I can tell by her expressions sometimes that she says things that she does not mean.

115. There are alot of things that I would like to talk about, but she won't let me.

116. She really likes me and shows it.

117. I think she could like someone but I don't think she could love anybody.

118. There are times when she is silent for long periods and then says things that don't have much to do with what we have been talking about.

119. When she is wrong she doesn't try to hide it.

120. She acts like she knows it all.

121. If she had her way, she wouldn't walk across the street to see me.

122. Often she makes me feel stupid the way she uses strange or big words.

123. She must think life is easy the way she talks about my problems.

124. You can never tell how she feels about things.

125. She treats me like a person.

126. She seems to be bored by a good deal of what I talk about.

127. She will talk to me, but otherwise she seems pretty far away from me.

128. Even though she pays attention to me, she seems to be just another person to talk with, an outsider.

129. Her concern about me is very obvious.

APPENDIX D

RELATIONSHIP RATING AND DESCRIPTION QUESTION

How would you rate your relationship with your clinical instructor?

Please circle one of the following:

SUPERIOR INFERIOR AVERAGE

Briefly indicate the basis for your selection.

APPENDIX E

TABULATION OF STUDENT DESCRIPTIONS OF THEIR TEACHER RELATIONSHIP.

Superior Rating Description

1. She is concerned for both patient and student and places every effort towards helping both learn; gets down to the level of the student.

2. She made the experience of learning interesting; very understanding of my ignorance; compassionate person who looks at students as people.

3. She was human and understood what it was like to be a student; had a sense of humor; approached us at our own level.

4. She took time to listen to what I have to say; easy to talk to; more like a friend than a teacher.

5. I felt free to be myself and talk to her about anything I wished; she was compassionate and understanding; she seemed interested in all that I said and did.

6. She was always ready to listen and to help. I could talk openly with her about my feelings. She never put me down about anything. She tried to understand my point of view then shed light with a different viewpoint.

7. She was as much a friend as a teacher.

8. We could communicate on a friendly basis rather than on the usual teacher/student basis.

9. We could enjoy each other and respect each other.

10. Helpful and understanding, made me feel like someone when she would stop to visit outside of the ward. She seemed interested in my home life which pleased me; gave me encouragement and praise when deserved. If I was not prepared or did something wrong she would stop me and gently ask if there was something I overlooked. She was there when you needed help, even for the simplest things.

11. We could talk together person to person. She made us all feel comfortable and at ease with her.

12. We were able to be more than teacher and student - good friends - and yet she taught me ways to learn for myself and more effectively carry out my work. She was always a real person - more than just a teacher. She would say how she felt about various matters and encouraged me to express my feelings as well.

13. Extremely approachable, helpful and understanding. She conveyed a real caring attitude. One important thing to me was her telling me exactly how she was feeling about my work and giving me constructive criticism. When she was frustrated she would let us know. In this way I think she showed confidence in us and that built confidence in us in regard to her.

14. I felt I was considered as an adult human being and that we could relate on the same level. When she was annoyed at me she let me know and I felt it was justified.

15. She is compassionate, understanding and disclosing. I felt free to talk with her about any matter.

16. She showed she was a real person and that she could be both friend and teacher. She was helpful and fair.

17. We became friends and could talk about our feelings both on the ward and off.

18. We are able to communicate most of what we feel. I enjoyed working with my teacher and learned a great deal in terms of skills from her. She never belittled me or made me feel that I was 'just another student' but rather made me feel as much an individual as a patient, staff member, or teacher.

19. We were able to talk freely and she made her expectations clear. She took a personal interest in me.

20. We had a great caring, understanding, and learning relationship.

Inferior Rating Description.

1. I felt there was a wall around her emotions; sometimes I could tell she was annoyed at me but she never told me so until the end [of the term]. I would rather she had told me when she was angry.

2. She didn't seem to hear what I said and would repeat the same thing except with bigger words. She seemed to have her mind set on a goal and didn't seem to hear what I said, or even give me an opportunity to think before speaking.

3. We seemed to grate on each others nerves. She taught me but other than that obviously didn't want any more to do with me.

4. I didn't like her attitude. To me it seemed like it was just too much of a job for her, not something she enjoyed doing. She ignored us when we met outside of class or clinic.

5. I never felt comfortable or at ease with her. She appeared to be one way but acted another which made me unwilling to ask her for anything.